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ABSTRACT

This English-as-a-Second Language (ESL) journal periodical devotes entire issues to specific issues. The theme of this issue is "Content-Base Instruction." Articles include: "Syllabus Design in Content-Based Instruction" (David E. Eskey); "How Relevant Is Relevance?: An Examination of Student Needs, Interests, and Motivation in the Content-Based University Classroom" (James F. Valentine, Jr., Lyn Margaret Repath-Martos); "Creating Content-Based Language Tests: Guidelines for Teachers" (Jean L. Turner); "Realbooks: Literature as Content in ESL Classrooms" (Marianne Boretz, Gary Colombo, Carl Friedlander, Ron Lapp, Peter Sotiriou, Bernadette Tchen); "What Is the Relationship between Content-Based Instruction and English for Specific Purposes?" (Ann M. Johns); "What Are Some Considerations for Teacher Training in Content-Based Instruction?" (Peter Master); "How Can ESL and Content Teachers Work Effectively Together in Adjunct Courses?" (Young Gee); "What Is the Relationship between Workplace Literacy and Content-Based Instruction?" (Rosemary Henze, Anne Katz); "What Do VESL and Content-Based Instruction Have in Common?" (Kathleen Wong); "Is Whole Language Teaching Compatible with Content-Based Instruction?" (David Freeman, Yvonne Freeman); "How Are Content-Based Instructional Practices Reflected in Sheltered English?" (Nina Glaudini Rosen); "What Are the Benefits of Cooperative Learning in Content-Based Instruction?" (Rocio Flores Moss); "What Is the Role of Teaching Culture in Content-Based Instruction?" (Sharon Hilles, Dennis Lynch); "How Can We Move from Comprehensible Input to Active Learning Strategies in Content-Based Instruction?" (Kate Kinsella); "How Can Thematic ESL Units Be Used in the Elementary Classroom?" (Sabrina Peck); "How Can Content-Based Instruction Be Implemented at the High School Level?" (Eva Wegrzecka-Monkiewicz); "How Does One Go About Developing Content-Based Materials for the Commercial ESL/EFL Market?"(Patricia A. Richard-Amato); "What Challenges Do Content-Based Instructors Face?" (Donna M. Brinton); and

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The CATESOL Journal

Special Theme Issue: Content-Based Instruction

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The CATESOL Journal

Editors' Note

We are pleased to present the first theme based special issue of *The CATESOL Journal*. Its focus on content based instruction provides an in-depth look at one of the most exciting new developments in our field. We wish to thank our guest editors, Marguerite Ann Snow and Donna M. Brinton, for responding to our challenge to develop this timely volume. They completed their task with professionalism and enthusiasm.

Dorothy S. Messerschmitt
Co-Editor

Denise Murray
Co-Editor

The CATESOL Journal

Guest Editors' Note

When we were asked to guest edit this special theme issue of *The CATESOL Journal* on content-based instruction (CBI), we seized the opportunity to showcase the interesting work in this area taking place around our state at all educational levels—elementary, secondary, postsecondary, and adult. In this journal edition, we seek to raise important issues in CBI, describe current content-based practices, and suggest directions in which this approach might evolve in the future. In designing this edition, we decided to look forward, opting to build on previous work in language and content integration, rather than retell its history. Throughout the issue, however, are references to earlier work in CBI; we invite readers to explore these references to provide context, both national and international, for the work here in California.

We also decided to use this theme issue as an opportunity to cast the net widely and show the relationships between CBI and other approaches which are currently generating interest in California. Accordingly, we asked experts in such areas as cooperative learning, whole language, and the teaching of culture to discuss the relationship between their work and CBI. We also looked to English for specific purposes (ESP), vocational English as a second language (VESL), and sheltered English, where the connections are a bit more obvious, in an attempt to uncover the similarities and delineate the differences among these related endeavors. We believe that this type of bridge building reveals a broadly based foundation for content-based teaching at all levels of instruction and suggests a great variety of approaches to improving instruction for language minority students.

As in the regular editions of *The CATESOL Journal*, there are three sections to this special issue: **Articles, CATESOL Exchange,** and **Reviews.** The **Articles** section presents a comprehensive treatment of four key topics in content-based instruction: syllabus design; student needs, interests, and motivation; testing; and literature as content. The **Exchange** section augments the full-length chapters by covering a wide variety of practical issues in CBI and, as mentioned, considers the relationships among related approaches. We designed this section as a true exchange, a dialogue of sorts with the authors who shared their perspectives and experiences across different levels of instruction. The third section, **Reviews,** examines current ESL/EFL textbooks designed for either sheltered content or content-based language instruction at a variety of instructional levels, ranging from the elementary setting to preuniversity and university levels. Some of these texts are designed for multiskill instruction; others emphasize a single skill such as vocabulary or writing while also suggesting ways in which students can practice other skills.

We think that this issue represents the state of the art in CBI in California. The rich variety of ways in which the principles of CBI are being applied at all educational levels is indeed impressive. We would like to encourage others working in CBI to join the dialogue by sharing their experiences at annual CATESOL conferences, in *CATESOL News*, and in future volumes of *The CATESOL Journal*. For those new to this instructional approach,we hope that this issue will inspire them to try content-based teaching in their classrooms. And finally, while we have designed this special issue with ESL teachers in mind, we hope that readers will share relevant articles with colleagues in the content areas and in the workplace in an attempt to build the bridges which are at the heart of content-based teaching.

Marguerite Ann Snow and Donna M. Brinton
Guest Editors

The CATESOL Journal

DAVID E. ESKEY
University of Southern California

Syllabus Design in Content-Based Instruction

■ **This paper explores the relationship between content-based second language instruction and so-called communicative language teaching and traces the development of syllabus design for second language courses from its emergence as an issue in the mid '70s to the present day. The paper argues that content, when combined with a concern for communicative function and grammatical structure, provides the missing third dimension in syllabus design for second language courses and generates course designs superior to those based on structure alone or on some combination of structure and function. The paper concludes with a brief discussion of the problems in, and the prospects for, developing this kind of syllabus for such courses.**

Communicative Language Teaching, Content-Based Instruction, and Syllabus Design

In a brilliant, if somewhat neglected, paper the late H. H. Stern (1981) identified and discussed two major, and largely unreconciled, versions of what had become (and still remains) the dominant approach to second language teaching, that is, "communicative" language teaching (CLT). One—mainly European (and, especially, British)—he dubbed the *L- (for linguistics) approach*, because it derived from new kinds of linguistic analyses—not analyses based on linguistic forms like phonemes, morphemes, and syntactic structures but analyses based on such semantic elements as notions and functions and particular speech acts. The other—mainly American—approach he dubbed the *P-* (for psychology and pedagogy) *approach*, because it derived not from any kind of linguistic analysis but from studies of learners and the language-learning process. This approach is mainly concerned with establishing the kinds of conditions under which learners learn second languages best and the kinds of activities most likely to facilitate second language learning.

Since the L-approach generated a new kind of content for language courses, it led naturally to work on syllabus design, to what Munby (1978) called *communicative syllabus design*, and to the work of Wilkins (1976), Van Ek (1975), and many others on so-called *notional* syllabuses. Since the P-approach was based on process studies, it led naturally to work on methodology, to such new ways of teaching as Total Physical Response (Asher, 1969) and The Natural Approach (Krashen & Terrell, 1983). It is interesting that each of these approaches was weakest where the other was strong, the L-approach having little to say about how semantic units should be taught, and the P-approach having little to say about what the content of a language course should be.

Content-based instruction (CBI) is clearly a descendant of the P-approach, in the sense that it consciously rejects the common sense notion that the content of a language course should be language. A basic premise of CBI is that people do not learn languages, then use them, but that people learn languages *by* using them. Thus in the surprisingly extensive list of works on CBI (e.g., Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989; Cantoni-Harvey, 1987; Crandall, 1987, to name just three of the book-length treatments), there is very little detailed discussion of syllabus design for content-based courses. By detailed I mean discussion of how a content-based syllabus for a class of second language learners would differ from one for a class of native English-speakers. The best work addressing this particular problem is that of Mohan and his colleagues (e.g., Early, 1990; Mohan, 1986), but most of those promoting CBI seem to assume that in this area (as opposed to methodology, an area in which differences are widely recognized and discussed) content-based courses for second language learners are no different from other subject matter courses, an assumption which I believe to be false for reasons which I will discuss in the third section of this paper.

On the other hand, CBI does provide content for courses in a natural way—the subject matter to be studied—and although I will argue that this kind of content does not, in the form that courses for native speakers employ, constitute the proper content for content-based *second* language courses, I will also argue, in the next section, that it does constitute the proper place to begin. And I will argue, more broadly, that CBI represents a very promising way of redefining CLT in a more comprehensive and unified manner.

The Case for the Content-Based Syllabus

It would hardly be revolutionary to say that the advent of the notional syllabus in the 1970s (Wilkins, 1976, provides a convenient starting point) was the beginning of serious discussion of the syllabus in modern ESL (or British ELT) circles. It might, in fact, be more accurate to say that the subject of syllabus design for language courses barely existed as an issue in the field before the notional syllabus was offered, about 15 years ago, as a more enlightened approach to the problem of designing second language courses than what was come to be known as the *structural* or *grammatical* syllabus, a type of syllabus so well established among the course designers of the day that few of them had considered the possibility of organizing a course in any other way. Since that time, however, it has become a commonplace of the field that the older structural syllabus is based on some set of the grammatical forms of a language, as identified by the typical linguistic analysis of forms (phonological, lexical, and morpho-syntactic), whereas the newer notional syllabus is based on some set of the notions and functions of a language, as identified by some kind of semantically based text or discourse analysis (see Yalden, 1983 for an excellent summary of the history, to the early '80s, of syllabus design in second language teaching).

From that major premise, the substantial body of work that was published in the '70s on syllabus design for second language courses developed around two major arguments: first, that the notional syllabus, or some form of communicative syllabus, was superior to the structural syllabus (a literature devoted to explaining what this newer type of syllabus was and why it was better than earlier types, e.g., Wilkins, 1976), and, within a few years, that the notional syllabus was not as wonderful as its proponents thought it was (a kind of backlash literature devoted to exploring some of the limitations of this kind of syllabus, e.g., Brumfit, Paulston, & Wilkins, 1981). In the '80s, a more descriptive tradition developed. Most recent work on syllabus design takes one of three tacks—historical (there now being some history to record, e.g., Yalden, 1983); how-to (syllabus design having been recognized as an integral part of course and program design, e.g., Dubin & Olshtain, 1986; Yalden, 1987); and survey of types (e.g., Krahnke, 1987, which includes some discussion of CBI)—or some combination of these (e.g., Prabhu, 1987, which introduces the *procedural* syllabus, in my opinion one kind of content-based syllabus; it is virtually identical with Krahnke's *task-based* syllabus). The current feeling seems to be that just as there is no one best method for teaching a second language, so there is no one best syllabus type. This may be literally true but can be pushed too far. I will argue below that the best syllabus for a second language course, though it may differ from others in detail, will always meet certain criteria (Krashen, 1983, advances a similar argument for methods).

In any case, the controversy provoked in the '70s by the claims for the notional syllabus was never really resolved. It simply petered out. It soon became apparent that the so-called *notional-functional approach* had almost nothing to contribute to many of the questions—questions of method and materials, for example—that second language teachers are most concerned with answering. From a purely theoretical point of view, however, the trouble with both sides of this controversy was that they based their positions on a concept of competition between two major syllabus types (with a third, minor type—the so-called *situational* syllabus—having some limited usefulness), but this view of the issue is misleading. These two approaches to syllabus design are not contradictory but complementary. Both the notional syllabus recently in vogue and the structural syllabus of an older period can best be understood not as simple alternative approaches to syllabus design but as direct applications of the major theoretical work of their times on the subjects of language and second language learning and, therefore, as part of a larger, ongoing developmental process. As the scope of linguistic inquiry has increased, so has the scope of syllabus design, from a one-dimensional concern with grammatical form to a broader, two-dimensional concern with both grammatical form and communicative function. Since this increase in scope has breached the old wall between the study of language as a formal system and the study of systems of communication, it does, I would immediately concede, constitute a major breakthrough in second language teaching. But I would also argue for still another level of development embodied in the content-based syllabus, which represents a still broader conception of language and second language learning and attempts to apply insights from still newer research on these subjects. Just as the notional syllabus is best viewed as an extension and development of the structural syllabus (not, as noted, a mere alternative to it), so the content-based syllabus is best viewed as a still newer attempt to extend and develop our conception of what a syllabus for a second-language course should comprise, including a concern with language form and language function, as well as a crucial third dimension—the factual and conceptual content of such courses.

More specifically, the structural syllabus is best viewed as a direct application of the notion of *competence*—a speaker's largely unconscious knowledge of the grammar of any language he can speak (as opposed to *performance*, the speaker's real language behavior which must, of course, be based on competence and perhaps additional sets of sociolinguistic and pragmatic rules). This notion also includes most of the pre-Chomsky work in descriptive linguistics, both in the U.S. and elsewhere, the controversies that raged over Chomsky's transformational-generative model having to do little with the scope of linguistics but more with the nature of the systems of rules that constitute the grammars of human languages. For most of the competing approaches to linguistics, grammar remained the proper object of inquiry until a few scholars, mainly sociolinguists, began to argue for a broader conception of language as a system for generating not only grammatical sentences but also genuine communicative acts. And for a few applied linguists, it was these ideas that led to the notion of the notional syllabus, which I believe is best viewed as a direct application of the notion of *communicative competence*—a speaker's knowledge of what is not only possible (i.e., grammatical) in a language, but also appropriate in particular contexts where people use language for real communicative purposes. It is important to note that this conception of language includes the earlier conception but expands upon it, just as the notional syllabus includes some description of the grammar of the language to be learned (in the form of *exponents* for the notions and functions) but treats it as just one subsystem of rules for realizing a speaker's ideas, feelings, and intentions, which in turn involve another subsystem of different kinds of rules, that is, the rules of discourse.

Widdowson (1979) has proposed a model of language incorporating both of these systems of rules, which he calls *rules of usage* (i.e., grammatical rules of the kind on which the structural syllabus is based) and *rules of use* (i.e., discourse rules of the kind on which, together with grammatical rules, the notional syllabus is based). But Widdowson's system is even more inclusive. He also argues that a speaker must master what he calls *procedures* for negotiating meaning in specific real world contexts, and these correspond more closely to Chomsky's unspecified *rules of performance*, which neither of the syllabus types just referred to deals with in any serious way. In fact, these procedures are not rules at all. In reality, as Widdowson (1981) notes, human language behavior is not so much rule-governed as merely rule-referenced (p. 19). And, if Widdowson is right, as I think he is, something more than rules is required for learning how to use a new language in the real world, where the forms that are needed and the precise language acts that must be performed are, nearly always, to some extent unpredictable.

The problem is that learning rules is not enough, even if the rules of discourse are included. Rules are abstractions which normally apply only in token or typical situations. They cannot tell learners exactly what to say in particular cases, in which they must often make a judgment as to what should be said or how to interpret what someone else has said. Real language learning is most likely to occur when the context of that learning is not only typical, but real, when the learners are not merely acting out roles but trying to use their new language to fulfill genuine communicative purposes. In real language use, speakers do not begin with a list of either forms or functions that they wish to produce, but with a subject that they happen to be interested in and would like to learn more, or say something, about. Language syllabus designers, however, have not been much concerned with the purposes of learners, other than linguistic purposes, nor with subjects, so much as with the language of subjects, which most learners do not find especially interesting. Thus the missing third dimension in syllabus design is, I would argue, subject matter or content, and a real concern for subject matter is what most distinguishes the content-based syllabus from other syllabus types.

Content, in this kind of syllabus, is not merely something to practice language with; rather, language is something to explore content with. Such a syllabus does not begin with a list, or any selection from a list, of either forms or functions, but with a topic (or topics) of interest—a network of issues, concepts, and facts which a skillful instructor can bring to life for some particular group of students—an approach that coincides with what we know about human learning in general and second language learning in particular.

As a number of psycholinguists have noted (e.g., Rumelhart, 1980), people do not acquire or store knowledge in the form of random lists of facts but in what is known as cognitive structure, a kind of picture of the world (Smith, 1975) that each of us carries around in his or her head and to which everything we know is related. Thus, acquiring new knowledge always entails relating new information to what the learners already know, to the networks of knowledge, now often called *schemata*, of which their cognitive structures are composed. Before learners can begin to make such sense of a subject (before it can, for them, become a subject of interest), they must therefore acquire what Grabe (1986) has called a "critical mass" of information on that subject—that is, sufficient information to give that subject a shape of the kind that I have just referred to as a network of issues, concepts, and facts. If, for example, I were to say, "It takes good outside shooting to beat a zone defense," some readers of this article would be hard-pressed to say what I was talking about (although there are no words in this sentence that an educated reader could not define), whereas others would instantly recognize my remark as a common observation about the game of basketball. Moreover, as a number of scholars in our field have noted, language learning is essentially a natural process in which students learn or acquire the language by using it, not by memorizing rules or doing meaningless drills, and by using it to fulfill real comunicative needs. Widdowson (1981) says, simply, "acquisition and use are essentially the same phenomenon" (p. 21), but, as I have tried to show, normal use cannot take place in the absence of a genuine subject of interest.

Given these insights into the way that people learn, and the way that they learn second languages, the crucial role of content in the language-learning process can be defined in relation to two basic learning problems.

There is, first of all, the problem of knowledge (for researchers, the *cognitive* variables). For learners to make normal use of a language—the usual condition for successful acquisition—they must apply it to subjects they know something about (for which they have acquired the relevant schemata), and subjects they know something about in that language. They must develop some skill in the use of the language forms and routines needed for dealing with those subjects in whatever ways they may have to deal with them. But in the process of acquiring the key knowledge and skills, it is content which, when a course is built around it, will eventually provide that critical mass of information on the subject that will make it increasingly comprehensible. And in using the language to make sense of that subject, it is content, not form or function, that the learner will attend to. But it is just that kind of use, and that kind of attention, which results in the real acquisition of language.

Almost equally important is the problem of feeling (for researchers, the *affective* variables)—the learners' feelings that a subject really matters in some way that relates to their personal values and beliefs. The learners need to not only know about subjects, but care about them, if their study of those subjects is to evoke a normal learning experience. This point is, I think, very closely related to Stevick's (1976) notion of *depth* (pp. 34-36), and what some colleagues of mine call *engagement*—the personal involvement of the learner in the learning, at a level which guarantees real interest in it. There is, after all, no better motivation for learning a language than a burning desire to express an opinion in that language on a subject that one really cares about. In fact, it is only when that happens, I suspect, that most learners begin to take a serious interest in the problems of language forms and language functions, that is, in the problem of how to say it right.

By this time, I hope that I have made it plain that, like the notional syllabus, the content-based syllabus should not be considered a mere alternative to earlier types but a logical extension and development of them. At its best, this kind of syllabus incorporates all three dimensions of the good language course—the dimensions of content, function, and form.

Such a syllabus must, of course, be concerned with language form and function wherever they constitute problems for a learner, as they frequently do. To understand a lecture on any subject of interest, a learner must comprehend most of the words and structures that the speaker employs. To write a paper on that subject, he or she must have some understanding of what it means to compose written discourse in that language. But in the format provided by a content-based syllabus, these linguistic forms and functions are never ends in themselves but simply means of achieving communicative ends—of comprehending or producing information on a subject that the learners are exploring simply because they are interested in it. The structural syllabus tends to treat its content as mere tokens of various grammatical structures, and even the notional syllabus, concerned as it is with teaching for communicative purposes, approaches content mainly as a sampling of key discourse types—which, I think, is why both kinds of courses have a way of breaking down into a disjointed series of old familiar language lessons that do not have the feel of the normal learning process. By contrast, in focusing on real subject matter, the content-based syllabus provides a kind of natural continuity, creates genuine occasions for the use of those procedures for negotiating meaning that Widdowson identified, and tends to pull all three dimensions of language learning together around a particular communicative goal.

The Content-Based Syllabus: Problems and Prospects

During its brief 10 to 15 years of existence, content-based instruction has clearly prospered. From K-12 immersion programs to the adjunct courses offered at colleges and universities (see Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989 for discussion of the various kinds of content-based courses), this approach has attracted widespread interest and support. In American university ESL programs, it may in fact have become, in one form or another, the most popular method currently employed (Casey, 1991). At my own university, probably the first to implement what Brinton, Snow, and Wesche call *theme-based language instruction*, we are more convinced than ever that this appproach to language teaching is the best one that has been developed so far, at least for the kind of populations we serve. Student reaction has been consistently good, the first sign of which was a massive increase in the quantity of comments on our evaluation forms (which suggests that all the jokes that end with the punchline, "First, you have to get their attention" have some basis in fact). In the main, students seem to find such courses interesting, challenging, and relevant to their experience as students in the American university system. Faculty, too, seem to favor these courses, finding them, as do students, far more interesting, if more difficult to teach, than our more traditional language skills courses. And, finally, many others who have tried such courses have reported a considerable measure of success (e.g., Hauptman, Wesche, & Ready, 1988).

But we have also discovered that our courses—and by extension, any courses built around a content-based syllabus—have their limitations and generate certain specific problems. Two are especially troublesome.

The first is the problem of relating language form to language function and content in this kind of syllabus. This is the old accuracy/fluency problem, and content-based courses tend to come down hard on the side of fluency. Content and function flow rather smoothly together, being complementary aspects of language as a system for communication, but attending to grammar in any systematic way is difficult within communicative paradigms. One major reason may be the absence of insightful theoretical work on the relationship between grammatical form and discourse function (discourse studies are expanding dramatically but are still relatively underdeveloped); but there are also those who would argue that grammar cannot be taught (although, of course, it can be learned), and that the notion of somehow attending to it directly is simply misguided. As students learn to communicate in a language, so this argument runs, they will acquire whatever grammar they need. But those of us who work with real students in the real world have seen too many apparent counter-examples—speakers and writers of a fluent but ungrammatical English, a kind of pidginized ESL—to find this very convincing (see Eskey, 1983, for further discussion). It seems to me that on the issue of how to teach linguistic forms, or how to insure that they will be learned, we don't really even know the right questions to ask.

A second important (and perhaps related) problem is the student who does not make normal progress in the course. One reservation I have about learning by doing is that those who don't do well don't learn. Content-based instruction can provide students with genuine opportunities for learning, but it is far from clear to me what should be done for a student who cannot seem to exploit these opportunities. I am speaking of a small minority, and the answer may be "nothing": It may be that a certain percentage of students are, for any number of a wide range of reasons, incapable of learning a second language well. (An old friend of mine used to insist that one basic principle of education is that "Salvation is not compulsory.") If that is true, then no kind or amount of teacher intervention could make very much difference, but the trouble is we don't really know that it is true. For some students, a more structured approach might be better.

The real source of both these problems, I suspect, is that we have never come to terms with the fact that what we teach in any kind of content-based course is not the content itself but some form of the discourse of that content—not, for example, "literature" itself (which can only be experienced) but how to analyze literature; not "language" (in the sense of de Saussure's *langue*) but how to do linguistics. For every body of content that we recognize as such—like the physical world or human cultural behavior—there is a discourse community—like physics or anthropology—which provides us with the means to analyze, talk about, and write about that content; but these are culture-specific communities to which students must be acculturated.

Thus for teachers the problem is really how to acculturate students to the relevant discourse communities, and for students the problem is really how to become acculturated to those communities. Since each of these specialized communities grows out of, and remains embedded in, the larger discourse community of the speakers of the language being learned, the content of courses for nonnative speakers (by definition members of another culture, another major discourse community) cannot be exactly the same as the content of courses for native-speaking learners, who are normally much better attuned to the assumptions, conventions, and procedures of their own discourse communities. With respect to all of these, courses for second-language learners should be far more explicit than those for native speakers, but this principle assumes that the designers of such courses know (in the sense of having conscious knowledge of) what these assumptions, conventions, and procedures are, an assumption that is largely unjustified at this time. In this area, the best work is being done by scholars specializing in ESP, often in relation to academic writing (e.g., Johns, 1986, 1991; Swales, 1990; see also Campbell, 1990), but we have a long, long way to go.

Still, I think we have arrived at what I would call Phase 2 in the design of content-based courses, a phase of what I hope will be extensive fine tuning of this fundamentally sound approach, especially in the area of syllabus design. The first step will be to recognize the problem, to discard the false assumption that content-based courses for nonnative speakers should differ from courses for native English-speakers in methodology but not in content. The second step will be to develop, through research, much more explicit knowledge of what the kinds of discourse we want to teach consist of—an especially challenging research agenda because it entails our achieving a better understanding of ourselves annd some of our most basic, and normally unexamined, assumptions and values. The final step will be to build this new knowledge into content-based syllabuses for our students. Such work might even have implications for subject matter courses for native-speaking students in a society as diverse as our own, which is (at least in principle) committed to providing every student with the maximum opportunity to develop his or her academic potential. There is currently substantial evidence that many of our children—minority children, in particular—enter our school improperly prepared to deal with the culture they encounter there (e.g., Gee, 1990; Heath, 1986). A more explicit understanding of what these children need to know in order to perform more successfully in our schools might provide us with the means to alleviate this problem.

Of course, even if we were to succeed in developing more explicit versions of CBI for second language learners (and other culturally different populations), there would still be a certain irony in the fact that the best syllabus for a second language course might end up looking a good deal like a syllabus for any other kind of course. Have we come around at last to organizing our teaching in the way that our brains have always organized our learning in our day-to-day lives? That would seem to confirm both the scientist Einstein's observation that if we could see far enough, what we would see—space being curved— is the backs of our own heads, and the poet Eliot's (1962) observation that "the end of all our exploring will be to arrive where we started and know the place for the first time" (p. 145). But perhaps that should merely reassure us. Innovative ideas have a way of turning out to be reasoned explanations of what our intuitions tell us, and I suspect that the content-based syllabus, with its stress on our culture's normal use of language to explore issues of real interest to students, may turn out to be what we have been looking for all along. ■

Footnotes

1. Parts of the remainder of this paper appeared in much earlier form in Eskey, D. E. (1984). Content: The missing third dimension in syllabus design. In J. A. S. Reid (Ed.). Case studies in syllabus and course design. *RELC Occasional Papers, 31*, 66-77.

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How Relevant is Relevance?: An Examination of Student Needs, Interests, and Motivation in the Content-Based University Classroom

■ **This article reports on two ethnographic studies that investigated student motivation in content-based ESL classrooms at a major U.S. university. The ESL population studied included immigrant and international students who were enrolled in the advanced level of the university's ESL service courses. The ESL course materials consisted of videotaped academic lectures from university content courses (i.e., history, communication studies) and excerpts from authentic course texts as part of an academic skills-based instructional sequence. Students were motivated through attention/interest, relevance, confidence, and satisfaction, according to a motivational theory of instructional design. Classroom observations and interviews as well as examination of existing documents revealed that relevance of ESL materials and tasks was indeed motivating to a wide variety of students but that the other aspects of motivation were of equal if not greater importance. These findings lead to the belief that skills-based ESL courses in content areas of high general interest, in which instructors emphasize the relevance of materials and tasks, can do much to enhance student motivation and academic achievemment in both ESL and content course work.**

Curriculum designers, educators, and researchers have long searched for effective ways to facilitate and expedite language acquisition. With the shift towards methodologies focused on language use, such as the language for specific purposes movement (LSP), and away from those focused on language usage, such as grammar translation, the relationship between the content of second language instruction and learners' educational goals has come under careful scrutiny. One recent curricular innovation which claims to achieve this match is content-based instruction (CBI). Underlying both the LSP and CBI movements is the premise that providing language learners with subject matter relevant to their real world needs will motivate them to acquire the language associated with those needs as well.

Proponents of LSP and its English language equivalent, English for specific purposes (ESP), however, have learned the hard way that relevance alone may not always motivate students:

> ... Teachers are realising that purpose-built ESP courses lacking some general components can be boring and demotivating to the very students they were especially designed for. It could well be that teachers, course book writers and programme designers have been guilty of focusing too much on the desired *end-product*, without giving enough thought to the *process* of achieving it. (Kennedy & Bolitho, 1984, pp. 136-7)

This insight from the ESP literature, i.e., that designing curricula around the notion of relevance alone does not guarantee student satisfaction, is an important one to keep in mind when investigating CBI and its underlying premises. The lingering suspicion when noting the purpose of such curricula and the claims made by CBI curriculum designers is that they may well be falling into the same trap. Thus an investigation of the notion of relevance as it applies to CBI is in order.

The American university English as a second language (ESL) setting is a particularly interesting one in which to examine the dimensions of relevance and need satisfaction given the widely varying backgrounds of the current university student population, which consists of significant numbers of both immigrant and international students (Kayfetz, Cordaro, & Kelly, 1988; Zikopoulos, 1990).[1] In spite of such diversity in the university ESL context, instructional approaches such as CBI and LSP assume that meeting student needs (i.e., relevance) is both motivating and attainable. Indeed, proponents of CBI claim that "even though learner language needs and interests may not always coincide, the use of informational content which is perceived as relevant by the learner is assumed by many to increase motivation in the language course. ..." (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989, p. 3). The broad purpose of this paper is to examine this assumption by focusing on the relationship between motivation and instructional design with special attention to the role of relevance.

Motivation and Second Language Acquisition

In the field of second language acquisition (SLA), the study of motivation has been largely limited to variations on the sociopsychological approach of Gardner and Lambert (1959, 1972), whose notions of instrumental and integrative motivation have dominated the literature for decades.[2] Instrumental motivation and motivation based on relevance share characteristics of perceived functionality and utility for students who are learning a second language. Nevertheless, Gardner and his followers have generally considered integrative motivation superior to instrumental motivation as a support for second language learning (Crookes & Schmidt, 1989, p. 219). Crookes and Schmidt argue that in the field of SLA, past research emphases on naturalistic, subconscious second language learning and a concurrent lack of classroom-based research on motivation have made the adoption of more instructionally oriented definitions and theories of motivation both difficult and unlikely. They do emphasize, however, that the time is right for a more practical, interdisciplinary approach to motivation in SLA.

Motivation and Instructional Design

From educational psychology, Keller's (1983, 1987) motivational theory of instructional design provides at least a theoretical basis for looking at motivation and relevance in the classroom. Motivation, according to Keller (1983), "is the neglected 'heart' of our understanding how to design instruction" (p. 390). His motivational-design model divides motivation into four conditions: interest, relevance, expectancy, and satisfaction. The most fundamental of these for the purpose of this study is relevance, which Keller claims "refers to the learner's perception of personal need satisfaction in relation to the instruction, or whether a highly desired goal is perceived to be related to the instructional activity" (p. 395). As is evident from this definition, relevance refers not only to the satisfaction of instrumental needs, that is "when the content of a lesson or course matches what the student needs to learn" (Crookes & Schmidt, 1989, p. 228), but also to the satisfaction of personal-motive needs such as achievement and affiliation, or the need to interact with others (Keller, 1983, p. 408). In second language course design, instrumental needs are often ascertained through needs analyses, whereas needs for achievement and affiliation are often part of the rationale for such course activities as individual contracting and group work (Keller, 1983).

Relevance of Content to Student Needs

As previously noted, it is not uncommon for curriculum developers to incorporate the needs of learners into the instructional design of language courses. Most often, this is achieved through formal and informal needs analyses. As we have seen, early practitioners of ESP may have placed too much emphasis on what Hutchinson and Waters (1987) call *target needs* (i.e., what learners need to do in the target situation) and not enough on their *learning needs* (i.e., what they need to do in order to learn). CBI, on the other hand, purports to balance both types of students' needs by combining subject matter instruction with skills-based second language instruction. Indeed, proponents argue that content-based courses are

> … based directly on the academic needs of the students and generally follow the sequence determined by a particular subject matter in dealing with the language problems which students encounter. The focus for the students is on acquiring information via the second language and, in the process, developing their second language skills. (Brinton et al., 1989, p. 2)

In emphasizing both content instruction and second language skills, CBI attempts to meet both students' target and learning needs and to address students' relevance concerns based on instrumental and personal motives.

An Examination of the Relevance Assumption

From the background literature, it appears that several basic assumptions underlie CBI. First, the approach assumes that learners in a given academic setting will have similar linguistic needs. It also assumes that curriculum designers are able to identify those needs as well as create appropriate lessons from content materials to meet them. Finally, as has been indicated from the outset, an underlying assumption of CBI is that relevance is motivating, that is, that meeting the needs and goals of learners through subject matter instruction will motivate students to learn. The two studies reported on in this article examine this last assumption in an actual content-based, university ESL classroom. Specifically, three research questions were addressed: (a) What do university ESL students perceive their academic language needs to be?; (b) Given these perceived needs, to what degree is there a match between the CBI curriculum and students' stated needs?; and (c) Do students indeed find the content-based curriculum relevant and motivating?

Methodology

Setting and Program Description

To investigate the role relevance plays in influencing student attitudes towards a given language curriculum, we chose to examine the advanced level of the UCLA ESL Service Courses, which purports to meet students' real world academic needs through the use of content-based units. Participants in this program are concurrently enrolled students held by the university for an ESL requirement; thus, they are working towards their degree goals while improving their academic English language skills. Given this concurrent enrollment, the program's multiskill curriculum incorporates language skills that are deemed to be most relevant to the students' academic goals, as determined by experience and expert opinion rather than a formal needs analysis. Since the ESL course participants come from a wide range of disciplines, have varying degree goals, and have experienced widely different exposure to academic English, a true adjunct, in which all students are enrolled in the same linked ESL/content courses, is not feasible.

Instead the curriculum, henceforth referred to as the simulated adjunct, combines elements from a true adjunct with those of a theme-based model. It is considered a simulated adjunct in that the academic content-based units used in the ESL course consist of authentic video lectures taken from UCLA undergraduate general education courses, and the actual reading and writing assignments designated by the content professor. For example, a videotaped lecture on media and the First Amendment, from an introductory course in communication studies, combined with the corresponding readings, form an argumentation unit in the advanced-level ESL class. Following practice with listening comprehension, notetaking, and reading strategies based on the videotaped lecture and readings, students write a persuasive essay on a topic relevant to the First Amendment. They also participate in a debate structured around an issue brought up in the lecture. In the advanced-level sections we studied, two academic modules were used: one based on an introductory lecture from a western civilization course, and the second from the communication studies unit just described.

Procedures

Two independent studies were conducted simultaneously in the winter quarter of 1991. Study 1 employed questionnaires, observations, and interviews in four sections of an advanced-level ESL course. The goal was to get an overview of students' perceived needs and their views on the efficacy of the instructional sequence in meeting those needs. Through weekly observations and interviews, Study 2 focused in depth on one section of the same course. The studies are described in more detail below.

In Study 1, three questionnaires were administered to identify students' perceived needs and satisfaction with the curriculum. The first, an open-ended, precourse questionnaire administered in the first week of the course ($n = 88$), collected demographic information, such as degree goal, major, and previous experience with ESL, EFL and CBI[1] and elicited areas of students' perceived needs. Students' responses to the final question, "What academic abilities and skills do you need to be successful in your courses at UCLA?" were tallied, and the most frequently mentioned skills were incorporated into a second, Likert-scale survey. Administered during the second week of classes ($n = 76$), this survey asked students to rate the importance of these skill areas for academic success. A postcourse questionnaire ($n = 65$), in which students were asked to rate the emphasis given in the instructional sequence to these same skill areas and the helpfulness of instruction in meeting their academic language needs, was given the final week of the academic quarter.

Study 2, as noted above, employed both weekly, participant observations and in-depth interviews to investigate the same issues as Study One. However, while Study One broadly surveyed students without a previously stated theoretical frame, Study 2 focused primarily on student needs and reactions ethnographically[4] in light of existing theories of motivation and relevance.

Both studies employed observations as a primary data source. Participant observation allowed the researchers to view the curriculum in use and get a sense for the motivational level of the students vis-a-vis instructional activities. Study 1 focused on how students interacted with course materials and each other. Each of the four class sections was randomly observed at least four times during the 10-week quarter. In Study 2, the second researcher routinely observed one section's class meetings on a weekly basis, in order to monitor general motivational level and student reaction to the curriculum.

In both studies, observations yielded information on student personality type, and were used to identify possible interview candidates. The researchers found that some students were consistently voluble and active during class time, while others participated very little. Taking volubility and activity as a sign of possible motivation and interest (cf. Maehr, 1982; Stipek, 1988), students from both high and low volubility groups were selected for in-depth interviews.

In addition, students were selected on the basis of length of stay in the U.S. to ascertain whether interest and motivation were related to previous exposure to academic English. In Study 1, the researcher interviewed 36 students both individually and in small groups using a loosely structured interview guide derived from observed student reactions to the instructional sequence. In Study 2, eight individual, in-depth interviews were conducted using a highly structured interview guide designed to elicit student needs, reactions to the curriculum, and motivations.[5]

Additional attitudinal information was obtained from students' midterm evaluations and informal journal entries in both studies. The midterm evaluations (n = 78), administered during the sixth week of the quarter, asked students to rate instructional activities and materials on a three-point usefulness scale. Students also rated the time spent on global skills (reading, writing, speaking, listening, grammar, and vocabulary) on a five-point scale, ranging from *not enough* (1) to *too much* (5). This midterm evaluation included three open-ended queries on likes, dislikes, and suggestions for improving the course. Journal entries, in response to such instructor generated prompts as "How module #1 helped me to be a success at UCLA" (n = 21) and "If you could design an English class for a group of students exactly like you, what would the class be like?" (n = 19), were a rich source of student commentary on needs and interests. Both provided valuable information regarding students' perceptions of the relevance of the curriculum to their needs.

Results

Student Needs

Students expressed a wide range of achievement and affiliative needs on a variety of measures. In the academic domain, based on the questionnaire data from Study 1 (see Table 1), the most frequently expressed need was for writing instruction and practice, a finding which was later confirmed in the in-depth interviews. Reading comprehension was the second most highly rated skill area. In addition, reading speed was identified as a *somewhat important* skill, although one not as highly ranked as reading comprehension. A third area of perceived need was for listening comprehension, judged by 76% to be *very important*. It is interesting to note that while this finding is supported by the interview data, a strong endorsement of the need for listening comprehension was more often expressed by international students. Not surprisingly, many immigrant students, given their aural proficiency, felt that listening comprehension was of lesser importance. However, many of those same students felt that study skills, such as notetaking, outlining, and test taking, were more important for their academic success. Another perceived need frequently expressed in student journals and interviews was the need for knowledge of grammar. The following excerpt from a Vietnamese immigrant's journal is illustrative of the attitude many students hold regarding the curricular importance of both grammar and writing:

> If I could design an English class for a group of students who are all equally leveled in all academic abilities as I am, I would specifically focus on grammars [*sic*] and writting [*sic*] abilities. Everyone knows that to be successful in the real world, you must earn your audience's respect by expressing your point of view in good sense and be able to persuade them with your words.

Similar findings were reflected in the questionnaire data (Table 1), with 62% feeling that grammar was *very important*. Another skill noted for its importance was that of speaking, although once again this skill appeared more important to the international than to the immigrant students. A final category to note is that of vocabulary. Although on the first open-ended survey, this skill category was not initially identified by students as being important for academic success, vocab-

Table 1

Student Perceived Needs

	Importance			
SKILL AREA	**Very Important**	**Somewhat Important**	**Not Very Important**	**Not At All Important**
Writing	89%	11%	0%	0%
Reading Comprehension	87%	12%	1%	0%
Reading Speed	47%	46%	7%	0%
Listening Comprehension	76%	20%	4%	0%
Notetaking	64%	33%	3%	0%
Grammar	62%	34%	4%	0%
Vocabulary	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Speaking: Formal	50%	38%	12%	0%
Speaking: Informal	20%	48%	28%	4%

Note: (n = 65)

ulary later proved to be an area of great concern for many of the students, as indicated by observations, interviews and the midterm evaluations.

Affiliative needs emerged as another important area of student needs, primarily through classroom ethnographic observations employed in the second study. Observed student behavior and interview data indicated that the students enjoyed interacting with each other and being part of groups both in the ESL class and out. Indicators of this need ranged from students' preference to be interviewed together to anecdotes of the importance of groups in dealing with university academic life. One Taiwanese international student, for example, told of how classmates would intervene with professors who had difficulty understanding her. She added that this sense of group is particularly important in the ESL class: "We are in the same class and should know each other … make friends with each other." While affiliative needs were vital for some individuals, for the majority of students they were not as highly stressed as the achievement needs.

Student Needs and the Curriculum

Now that the academic and affiliative needs of students have been described, it is important to examine the relevance of the curriculum to these needs, in other words to look at the match between students' perceived needs and the instructional sequence, in order to begin looking at the motivational potential of the curriculum and instruction. Both strong and weak matches were found in the academic domain between students' perceived needs and the instructional sequence, whereas in the area of affiliation, interesting data regarding the role of groups and the instructor emerged.

Strong curricular matches to student needs were found in the areas of academic writing and reading. Eighty-one percent of students felt that the instructional emphasis placed on these two important skill areas was *about right* (see Table 2). There was a similar match between perceived needs and curriculum in terms of notetaking and listening skills. Seventy-one percent of the students surveyed at the end of the course rated notetaking skills as highly emphasized. In the interviews, several students commented that this particular aspect of the course really "helped me with other courses." As for listening comprehension, 79% of the respondents expressed satisfaction with the present level of emphasis placed on listening in the instructional sequence.

Table 2

Match of Curriculum to Student Needs

	Emphasis/Time Spent On		
SKILL AREA	**Too Much**	**About Right**	**Not Enough**
Writing	3%	81%	16%
Reading	5%	81%	14%
Listening	4%	79%	17%
Notetaking[a]	N/A	N/A	N/A
Speaking	1%	52%	47%
Grammar	0%	53%	47%
Vocabulary	0%	40%	60%

Note: ($n = 78$)

[a] Although an evaluation of student perceptions of the emphasis placed on notetaking was not included on the midterm evaluations, an emphasis scale on the third questionnaire in Study 1 ($n = 65$) did include this skill category. Seventy-one percent of the students indicated that notetaking was *highly* emphasized in the curriculum; 25% felt the skill was *somewhat* emphasized, and 4% felt the study skill was *not very* emphasized.

However, weaker matches were found for other areas of perceived needs, namely those of grammar, vocabulary and speaking. Forty-seven percent of the students claimed that there was *not enough* time spent on grammar instruction. The interview data showed a certain level of frustration with the lack of overt grammar instruction, especially among the long-term immigrant students. A second area of frustration was vocabulary: On the midterm evaluations, 60% of the students felt that not enough class time was spent on vocabulary activities. One student wrote: "I think an efficient way of building vocabulary would be very useful, i.e., more direct work on vocabulary." However, during the interviews, a Yugoslavian international student summed up his views of the content-based nature of the instructional sequence as follows: "Writing is most present [and] through that writing I improve vocabulary. ... [there is] maybe less [emphasis on] grammar, but [I] have to pay attention [to grammar] in writing." For this student, who was somewhat exceptional in his understanding of the CBI model, the need for overt grammar and vocabulary instruction was unnecessary. As for the final academic area of speaking, 47% of the students responded that there were *not enough* activities in the instructional sequence to help them improve their oral skills.

Group interaction in the classroom did, however, allow students an opportunity to practice their informal speaking skills and to satisfy their affiliative needs. Classroom observations revealed that group work was an integral part of instruction, although not all students found it to be especially beneficial in terms of academic success. The classroom configuration of six square tables—each seating four students facing one another—marked a sharp contrast to the traditional university classroom with rows of seats facing a blackboard and lectern. This configuration gave the impression that discussion and cooperative work were encouraged, an impression confirmed by both interviews and midterm evaluations. When asked to describe the class in the structured interviews, one student mentioned that "discussion is [the] most important part" of classroom activities and "it's always present." Another interviewee concurred, saying, "We sit in groups and sometimes ... most of the time we talk ...; we discuss a lot".

Students' affiliative needs were further met through the endeavors of the instructor. In many cases, students felt a tie to each other and the instructional sequence through the efforts of the teacher. In response to the midterm query of what they liked most about the class, five students commented about the classroom atmosphere, describing it as "comfortable" and "not boring." In addition, one noted the role of the instructor: "I think it's great the way it is. But in my opinion, it's [*sic*] also depends on the instructor too." This comment was reiterated by another student in her interview: "The teacher influences a lot ... The way I get interested is the teacher." This 'teacher effect' is an important one to note, for it can greatly change students' perception of the relevance of instruction and their interest in it.

Relevance and Motivation

From the above discussion of student needs and the ESL curriculum, one begins to get a sense of the relationship between relevance and motivation. Students clearly expressed appreciation for their new-found ability to put study skills such as notetaking to use in other settings. For example, one student commented in her interview that the goals of the ESL course were to "[give] us skills for our other courses—how to notetaking [*sic*], how to read faster ...," a point expressed by several other students.

In regard to the other academic skills, students also perceived the writing component of the course to be both useful and relevant. Writing-related materials and activities, such as composition handouts, in-class essays, and brief or extended definitions, were rated by more than half of the respondents to be *very useful* (see Table 3). Comments such as "[I have to do] daily work for class— including writting [sic] which is fantastic" and "[this class has] more writing [than the previous course], it's tough a little, but I think it is working," were made in response to being questioned about what students liked most. These kinds of comments further indicate the value and usefulness of the writing component for these students.

Paced and timed reading practice, while not initially rated so highly by students, was strongly rated at the midpoint of the course with 60% of the students indicating that such activities were extremely helpful for them. Furthermore, one Iranian immigrant wrote in her journal:

> This class is more useful than I ever thought it would be. One of my worst problems in studying is my low speed which I never knew how to improve it [sic]. However, this method of speed reading has really helped me to know that I should set a time and try to read in a set amount of time.

This student, demonstrating what McCombs (1984) would call "continued motivation to learn," later reported near the end of the term that the timed reading activities were so beneficial to her studies that she was interested in taking another ESL course which focused specifically on reading skill development. The value of the timed reading activities was also strongly supported in the midterm evaluations, with 10 students commenting that this reading activity was one of the things they liked most about the class.

Table 3

Student Ratings of Usefulness of Skill Area Activities

SKILL AREA	Usefulness Very Useful	 Somewhat Useful	 Not Useful
Writing			
Writing in class essays	63%	37%	0%
Composition hand-outs	59%	40%	1%
Writing brief/ extended definitions	51%	41%	8%
Journal writing	48%	51%	1%
Reading			
Paced and timed readings	60%	36%	4%
History textbook/ reading activities	45%	45%	10%
Study Skills & Academic Listening			
Paraphrasing/summarizing	67%	26%	7%
Notetaking/outlining	58%	39%	3%
Video lecture	49%	45%	6%
Group/Speaking Activities			
Class discussions	53%	43%	4%
Group work	42%	48%	10%
Group presentations	34%	36%	14%

Note: (*n* = 78)

Sixteen percent of students (12), all from the classroom in which ethnographic observations were conducted, indicated that the category of group presentations was *not applicable*, perhaps reflecting the fact that no presentations had occurred up to that point in the quarter.

The emphasis on study skills was also perceived to be quite motivating by students in the ESL service courses. One particularly salient activity was that of paraphrasing and summarizing, which 67% of the students found to be *very useful*. Notetaking, as we have seen, was viewed by many students as being relevant to their other academic course work, as was the skill of outlining, which a clear majority of the students rated as being quite useful. The response to the video lecture component, the primary source for the listening and notetaking activities, however, was not strong at the time of the midterm evaluation. In fact, in addition to being less highly rated than the study skills, the video component was specifically mentioned by eight students in their open-ended comments as one of the elements they disliked most. As with the history reading activities, this less than enthusiastic response could in part reflect disinterest in the topic of the first content-based unit—early medieval European History—as an additional 10 students commented negatively about that particular unit's subject matter.

In regard to group activities, students generally indicated a liking for group work, but not necessarily an appreciation for its usefulness in their academic work. Indeed, on the midterm evaluations, only 42% ranked group work as *very useful*, but 12 students named group work as the aspect they liked most about the course. In addition, nine more suggested increased or more varied group work in their suggestions for improving the course.

Paralleling the mixed findings concerning the usefulness of group work, certain students seemed to make an implicit distinction in the academic domain between materials and activities that were helpful and relevant and those that were interesting and enjoyable. One student, when asked what she liked about the class, began to talk about how she found that skills like notetaking and outlining "help" but are "boring" and later expressed her opinion that "this course is something you have to learn, you need to learn. ..." A second student echoed this "no, but" refrain responding that the aspect of the course he did not like was "writing so often, but I know it helps." Similarly, another international student said the aspect she disliked most was "writing papers" and then, laughing, responded immediately thereafter that the aspect she found most helpful was "writing papers." Lack of student interest certainly played a role in the relatively low rating of the history textbook and reading activities. Taken as a whole, such findings again emphasize that there is more to student motivation than mere relevance of instruction to student needs.

Discussion

Face Validity: Meeting Student Perceived Needs and Expectations

As was previously indicated, grammar and vocabulary were the skills most often listed by students as not having been given enough curricular emphasis. From our observations, we found that virtually all of the skills that students perceived as fundamental to academic success could be found in the curriculum as it stands; the problem perhaps stems from students' confusion over the form, structure, and goals of a content-based approach to language teaching. Only one student seems to have fully grasped that through the writing process in this CBI model, grammar and vocabulary instruction take place indirectly. For many students, however, it was difficult to get beyond expectations of a traditional language skills curriculum with an overt grammar component and weekly vocabulary lists. In an effort to deal with these expectations, we feel that it is fundamental for the students to have a clear understanding of the CBI model, and that the instructor must overtly state the rationale for each classroom activity. It also may be necessary and useful to include more explicit grammar and vocabulary instruction, perhaps through incorporation of a grammar reference book within the content-based instructional context.

Relevance Versus Interest in Instructional Design

Keller's (1983) instructional design theory of motivation distinguishes between *relevance* and *interest.* Instead of personal need or goal satisfaction, interest "refers to whether the learner's curiosity is aroused and whether this arousal is sustained appropriately over time" (p. 395). In this research, the distinction between perceived relevance and interest became apparent through findings that some instructional activities were perceived to be helpful, but not necessarily interesting or enjoyable. This was particularly the case for writing and study skills such as outlining and notetaking. Furthermore, in light of students' negative reactions to the European history module, the notion of student interest appears to have particular bearing for CBI in that a poor choice of topic seems to greatly undermine student motivation based on interest and, to some extent, relevance. When selecting courses for a CBI model such as this simulated adjunct program, curriculum designers must consider the students' general interests, backgrounds, and educational goals. For this particular program, broad, introductory courses which captured student attention and fostered discussion, such as those in Communication Studies and Psychology, greatly enhanced student interest and general motivation.

Affiliative Issues: Group Interaction and Instructor Role

As we have seen, Keller's notion of relevance refers to the satisfaction of not only instrumental needs, but also "personal needs," such as affiliation. The use of group work and the role of the instructor were found to be key variables in the affective and motivational reactions of these students to the instructional sequence. While it was not always viewed as relevant to academic success, group interaction in the course was highly valued by significant numbers of students because it seemed to offer them an opportunity to speak and get to know one another in a protected, culturally tolerant environment. Not surprisingly, the instructor was often a key player in setting the tone for this classroom environment. Our research findings also indicated that students prefer occasional restructuring of groups in order to get to know all class members. A final variable to note is that of instructor conviction about the efficacy of CBI: Observations of different instructors using the same materials revealed that variations in approach led to differences in student perceptions of interest and motivation. This demonstrates the importance of instructors' beliefs in the validity of CBI as well as the significance of instructor interest in and experience with the topic areas.

Thus, while support was found for CBI's claim that the instrumentality and relevance of instructional design are motivating to students, other factors such as student interest, expectations for language learning, and need for affiliation also heavily influenced student motivation. In the ESP context, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) have already noted the complexity of motivation as well as the importance of motivational factors beyond the scope of traditional notions of instrumental relevance:

> Motivation, it appears, is a complex and highly individual matter. There can be no simple answers to the question: "What motivates my students?" Unfortunately, the ESP world, while recognising the need to ask this question, has apparently assumed that there is a simple answer: relevance to target needs. ... But ... there is more to motivation than simple relevance to perceived needs. ... [If] your students are not fired with enthusiasm by the obvious relevance of their ESP materials, remember that they are people not machines. The medicine of relevance may still need to be sweetened with the sugar of enjoyment, fun, creativity, and a sense of achievement. ... In other words, they should get satisfaction from the actual experience of learning, not just from the prospect of eventually using what they have learnt. (p. 48)

As these ESP specialists have advocated, CBI must go beyond a mere reliance on relevance to motivate students. In addition to emphasizing skills that students find imminently helpful in their academic coursework, the model should also address such additional motivational concerns as student interest and satisfaction through appropriate content choice, recognition of students' perceived language learning needs for grammar and vocabulary, careful instructor development and training, and the effective use of such instructional techniques as group work and cooperative learning.

Conclusion

Relevance is Relevant, but ...

In summary, based on our findings, relevant instruction is important and motivating to students in the university ESL setting. Content-based instruction that simulates a university course while emphasizing authentic academic writing, reading, and study skills such as notetaking and lecture comprehension can be both meaningful and quite powerful in motivating students. However, the lack of traditional and therefore expected ESL activities such as grammar and vocabulary instruction, content topics which do not address the majority of students' background experiences and interests, and affiliative concerns such as group interaction and instructor role play additional, mitigating roles in student motivation and perceptions of relevance. ■

Footnotes

1. Classified on the basis of length of stay in the United States and residency status, working definitions and refinements of these two groups as used in this article are as follows: *international* students have tourist or student visas and have been in the U.S. less than two years; *short-term immigrant* students have permanent resident visas or citizenship and have been in the U.S. from two to five years; *long-term immigrant* students also have permanent resident status or citizenship and have been in the U.S. longer than five years.

2. Integrative motivation refers to an orientation in which the second language learner's goals "are derived from positive attitudes towards the second language group and the potential for integrating into that group." Instrumental motivation, by contrast, "refers to more functional reasons for learning a language" such as getting a job or passing a required examination (Crookes & Schmidt, 1989, p. 219).

3. Additional demographic data were obtained from the departmental student information sheets, which are filled out at the beginning of each quarter. These forms include data on native country, languages spoken, length of time in the United States, and a self-rating of proficiency in 10 English skill areas.

4. Watson-Gegeo (1988) notes the growing popularity of ethnography in educational and ESL research "... because of its promise for investigating issues difficult to address through experimental research, such as ... how to gain a more holistic perspective on teacher-student interactions to aid teacher training and improve practice" (p. 575). In order to obtain just such a holistic perspective of motivation in the university ESL classroom, ethnographic field observations were chosen for the current study. To satisfy another requirement of ethnographic research in ESL as outlined by Watson-Gegeo (1988), that of attempting to understand the situation "from the perspective of the participants" (p. 579), a decision to use in-depth interviews with students was also made.

5. According to the ESP literature, the "structured interview has several advantages over the questionnaire" in identifying the nature of learners' needs, such identification of needs being one of the basic research foci of this study. From an ethnographic perspective, the greatest advantage of the interview comes from the fact that "the gatherer can follow up any avenue of interest which arises during the question and answer session but which had not been foreseen during the designing of the structured interview" (MacKay, 1978, p. 22).

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Creating Content-Based Language Tests: Guidelines for Teachers

■ **The problems that language teachers face in developing their classroom tests are especially complex in content-based programs. The eight-stage guidelines for test development presented here outline the steps that test writers should follow to create appropriate, content- and context-specific tests. A broader benefit of the guidelines is that student progress in different classes and programs can be compared with reference to how the guideline activities were completed. This allows language educators to address important issues such as the instructional value of various content areas and the overall effectiveness of a particular CBI program in comparison to other CBI programs or different types of language instruction.**

The responsibility for developing tests to measure students' progress in their ESL classes usually falls to their teachers. Commercial tests, such as those that accompany textbooks, are occasionally available and appropriate, but often ESL teachers find themselves alone on a dark and dreary night, writing tests to be given the following day. This is a frustrating task; the other demands of teaching often seem much more urgent, and few teachers have received training in writing tests. In content-based language instruction (CBI), where the characteristics of the content and the content instruction determine to some extent the nature of the language instruction, developing suitable tests of student progress can be even more frustrating and complex. For example, teachers doing theme-based language instruction find that they must create a new test for each topic. The tests a teacher creates for a class centered on a particular current event, such as the reunification of Germany, are not going to work for classes that are centered on different issues. In sheltered and adjunct language programs, in which the content is taught by a content expert rather than the language teacher, there are even greater demands on the teacher developing the language tests.

The test-development guidelines presented here serve several purposes. Their most immediate purpose is to outline the relatively simple steps that test writers should follow to create consistent tests that truly measure the extent to which students learned what they were taught. However, careful execution of the outlined steps produces more than consistent, appropriate tests; the test-development process also promotes more integrated, effective instruction because the guideline activities require the language teacher to consider both language and content objectives, or—in the case in which language and content teachers work together—they require the cooperation of the team members to clarify the purposes of their CBI program. A broader benefit is that the results of tests developed for different classes or programs can be compared with reference to how the guideline activities were executed. This allows language educators to begin to form answers to important questions such as which content areas and classes lend themselves most effectively to CBI programs. It also allows teachers to make judgments regarding the effectiveness of a particular CBI program compared to other CBI programs or other types of language instruction.

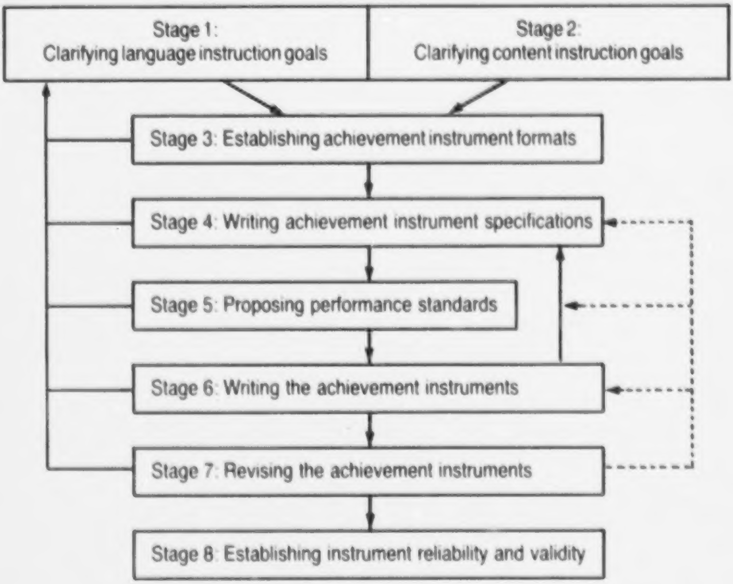
Overview of the Guidelines

The guidelines are a condensed version of the context-adaptive model for developing language achievement tests for CBI language programs (Turner, 1991). The model and the guidelines are adaptive in the sense that the manner in which the stages are completed and the nature of the tests that are written are determined by the characteristics of the class or program for which the tests are developed. The guidelines reflect sheltered- and adjunct-model CBI designs but can be used to guide the development of tests for use in theme-based programs as well.

The eight stages and the iterative nature of the test-writing process are summarized in Figure 1. The proximity of Stages 1 and 2 in the figure represent the high degree of cooperation that is required in CBI programs in which there are both language and content experts. The solid lines and arrows connecting Stages 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7 allow, if necessary, a return to Stage 1 for clarification of the instructional purposes of a program and repetition of stages which follow. The dotted lines and arrows indicate that revision of a test includes revision of the specifications, and possibly, revision of the performance standards. A detailed, illustrative discussion of each stage follows.

Figure 1.

The Adaptive Model for Developing Measures of Language Achievement

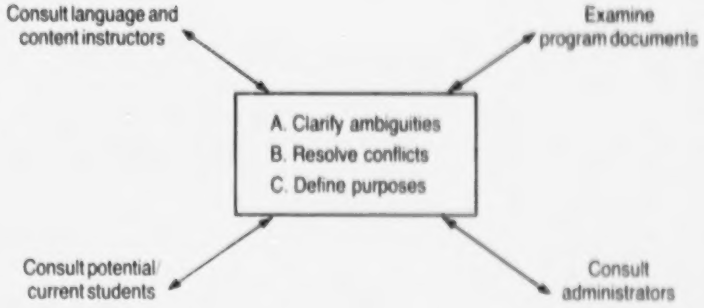

Stage 1:
Clarifying language instruction goals
Stage 2:
Clarifying content instruction goals
Stage 3: Establishing achievement instrument formats
Stage 4: Writing achievement instrument specifications
Stage 5: Proposing performance standards
Stage 6: Writing the achievement instruments
Stage 7: Revising the achievement instruments
Stage 8: Establishing instrument reliability and validity

The Eight Test-Development Stages

Because tests created through this process are based on specifications derived from the instructional purposes of a particular class, it is critical that the purposes of the language and content components be clear. It is also critical that the purposes be understood and agreed upon by all participants. Stages 1 and 2, summarized in Figure 2, guide clarification of the instructional purposes. These stages may initially seem unnecessary to teachers/test writers—they already know what they want their students to learn. However, other participants in the program might have different notions of the instructional purposes. The procedures included in these two stages provide an important check of these various perspectives, revealing misunderstandings or ambiguities that should be resolved. The procedures also establish a channel of communication among the information sources, allowing negotiation of a consensus regarding the instructional goals. The two-directional arrows in Figure 2 represent this interactional quality of the guidelines.

Figure 2.

A Diagram of Stages 1 and 2 Procedures
Clarifying Instructional Purposes


Consult language and content instructors
Examine program documents
A. Clarify ambiguities
B. Resolve conflicts
C. Define purposes
Consult potential/ current students
Consult administrators

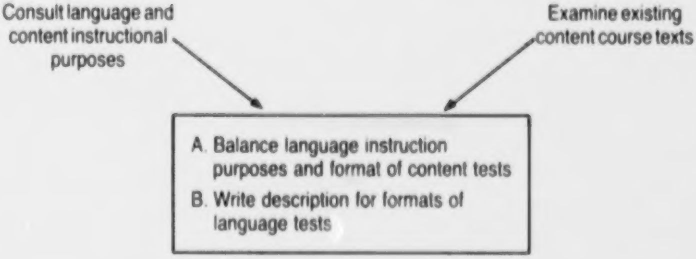
The teachers in a CBI program are perhaps the most important source of information regarding the instructional purposes of a program and should certainly be consulted to resolve any discrepancies among the information sources. As shown in Figure 2, other sources include program documentation, such as the curriculum, class descriptions, instructional materials, and existing tests. Program administrators are consulted to confirm their understanding of the purpose of the program. Students' impressions of the instructional purposes also represent an integral component in the process of clarifying the purposes and negotiating a consensus. When students' understanding of the purpose of a CBI program is different from that of the teachers, problems arise. Consider the frustration and confusion that would develop among students who believed they were studying to improve their conversational skills when the course tests reflected their teachers' belief that the purpose was to improve academic reading and writing. Reaching a consensus regarding the instructional purposes requires an exchange of information among the various sources and often results in some sort of adjustment in one or more of them. On a program level, this might involve teacher training, student orientation, or modification of program documents.

Stage 3 guidelines direct the teacher/test writer's decisions regarding what the tests will look like; for example, they might involve multiple choice items, writing an essay, or less traditional tasks such as structured story telling or problem solving. To complete Stage 3, the teacher/test writer compares the clarified instructional purposes for the language and content components and reviews any content tests. (This process is simpler in theme-based CBI programs in which the content is usually taught by the language teacher.) Stage 3 is especially important in sheltered- and adjunct-model programs because the premises on which these CBI approaches are based include the notion that language instruction should reflect the eventual uses the learner will have for the language. Students in these kinds of classes have immediate use for language; thus, it makes sense for the language tests to mirror, to whatever extent possible, the format of the tests used in the content class.

The teacher/test writer must keep in mind, however, that the format of the content class tests cannot simply be copied over into the tests for the language class. For example, if the focus of instruction for a particular adjunct language class is improvement of expository writing and the exams for the adjunct content class are multiple choice, it makes no sense to write multiple choice language tests. Instead, the situation calls for language tests which require the students to demonstrate their improved ability to produce expository writing. Figure 3 summarizes the procedures that teacher/test writers perform to define the best formats for their CBI language tests.

Figure 3.

A Diagram of Stage 3 Procedures
Establishing the Test Formats


Consult language and content instructional purposes
Examine existing content course texts
A. Balance language instruction purposes and format of content tests
B. Write description for formats of language tests

At Stage 4, test plans (specifications) for the language tests are prepared. Writing specifications involves a little more work for the teacher/test writer than simply writing tests, but having specifications to serve as a guide can help a test writer stay on track when writing tests. Specifications act as blueprints; having them means that the teacher/test writer does not have to invent or reinvent each test activity, but can simply refer to the carefully developed, clearly articulated plan. Specifications are also useful because they can be used more than once; for example, they might be used to guide the development of additional forms of a particular test.

Specifications have four components (Popham, 1978, 1981):

(a) a *general description* of the skill(s) that the test will measure;

(b) a *passage description* that shows what the text or passage that the questions are based on will look like;

(c) an *example question* or *example task* that shows what the test questions will look like and how the students will answer; and

(d) a *scoring procedure description* that specifies the characteristics of acceptable and unacceptable responses.

The test specifications developed by Macdonald (1991) to determine whether ESL students were ready to participate in a sheltered high school science class are presented below to demonstrate what these four components might actually look like. (See Appendix for the complete test developed by Macdonald.)

1. *General description:* The purpose of this test is diagnostic, that is, to determine if students are capable of participating in the sheltered science class. It measures the students' ability to read and write. It is based on observation of activities that are conducted in the sheltered science class.

- The student should be able to read the passage and demonstrate recognition of the main ideas.
- The student should demonstrate the ability to apply the main ideas to information not specifically given in the text.
- The student should be able to understand vocabulary from the context.
- The student should be able to write a one-paragraph essay that is organized, addresses the topic given, and follows basic rules of capitalization and punctuation, and, although it may contain some errors, they should not interfere with meaning.

2. *Passage description:* (The source for the test passage is a science lesson presented by the science teacher.) The criteria for the passage are as follows:

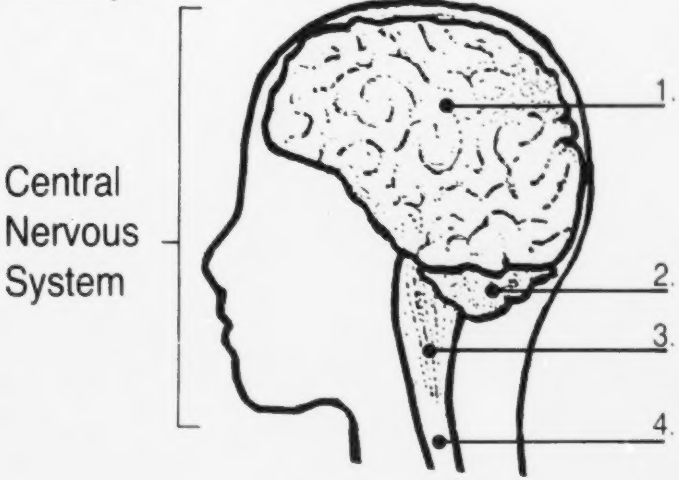
- The passage should contain all of the information that the student needs in order to complete the test, even if the student has no previous knowledge of the topic of the passage.
- The topic of the passage should be a topic that ESL students actually study in the sheltered science class.
- The passage may contain detailed, scientific information, but this information should be explained and paraphrased using terms that the students are likely to understand.

3. *Example questions and tasks:* (There are four types of items on this test.)

Type 1: Labeling

Using the diagram below, label the four major parts of the central nervous system.

For example:



Type 2: Matching

Draw a line from each part of the central nervous system to the activities that it controls.

For example:

Central Nervous System Part	Activity
Example:	Walking
Cerebrum	

Type 3: Vocabulary

Complete the following sentences using the most correct vocabulary word from this list.

For example:

coordination
memory
paralyzed
involuntary
to control

(a) In order to play sports, you need good ________________ .

Type 4: Essay

For example:

Write a one paragraph essay explaining what parts of the brain are most important when you a playing a sport. You may choose any sport—soccer, tennis, swimming, basketball, football, and so forth.

4. *Scoring Procedure Descriptions:*

Type 1 items: Objectively scored (right or wrong) based on an answer key.

Type 2 items: Objectively scored (right or wrong) based on an answer key.

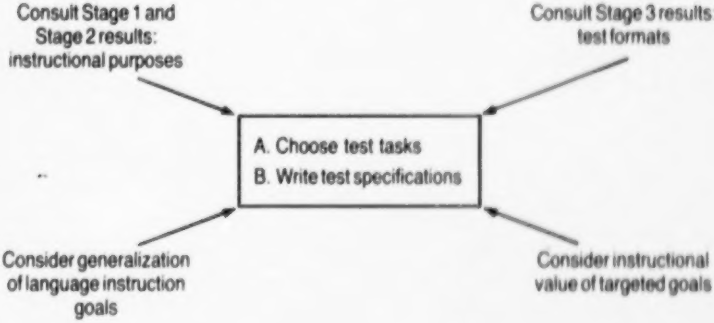
Type 3 items: Objectively scored (right or wrong) based on an answer key. Spelling and word form must be accurate to be considered correct.

Type 4 items: Subjectively scored using a holistic approach. The essays should be read twice and rated holistically for: grammar (5 points); vocabulary (5 points); mechanics (5 points); and content (5 points). Students receive one point for following the instructions and attempting to respond to the essay.

Like all tests, careful review might reveal areas that could be improved; thus Macdonald's test specifications (and test) are included here not as a model for developing CBI tests, but rather as an example of how an individual teacher/test writer applied the test-development methodology presented here to create an appropriate, context-specific test. A teacher/test writer developing tests for a different type of content-based class or a different purpose (e.g., an achievement test vs. a diagnostic test) might create tests quite different from the test developed by Macdonald. Figure 4 summarizes the main steps a teacher/test writer should follow in writing specifications for a test.

Figure 4.

A Diagram of Stage 4 Procedures
Writing the Test Specifications


Consult Stage 1 and Stage 2 results: instructional purposes
Consult Stage 3 results: test formats
A. Choose test tasks
B. Write test specifications
Consider generalization of language instruction goals
Consider instructional value of targeted goals

As indicated in Figure 4, the clarified instructional purposes for the language and content components of a given program should be held in mind when writing test specifications. In addition, the teacher/test writer must consider the generalizability of potential test tasks. For example, if a teacher wanted to measure students' improvement in expository writing, measuring their ability to write isolated sentences would be inadequate. Although the formation of individual sentences is a component of expository writing, it cannot be assumed that students who write acceptable sentences can also write acceptable paragraphs.

In addition to the generalizability of tasks, the teacher/test writer must also consider the instructional value of tasks (Popham, 1981). Test plans should specify tasks that both the teacher and the students understand and perceive to be important. It is also critical that the teacher and students understand and agree upon the characteristics of successful accomplishment of the tasks. The students should know what successful completion of the tasks looks like (or sounds like) even if they are not yet able to produce acceptable renditions. When writing test specifications, both the generalizability and instructional value of potential tasks are weighed with the results of Stage 3 in mind, in which the format of the tests is determined.

At Stage 5, how students' test performance will be interpreted is decided. This is called proposing or setting a performance standard. The procedures at Stage 5 help the teacher/test writer answer questions such as:

1. When tests yield numerical scores, what do particular scores mean; for example, is 85% correct a passing grade?

2. When letter grades are awarded, what is the correspondence between numerical scores and the letter grades that are given—is 85% an *A*, a *B* or a *C*?

When tests yield profiles or other nonnumerical assessments and translation into letter grades is necessary, Stage 5 activities also help the teacher determine the correspondence between the profiles and letter grades.

Many teachers postpone setting a performance standard for a test until after they see how their students do. However, if one waits until after tests are given to plan how to interpret students' performance, the purpose for giving the test might be subverted. Using the labeling section of Macdonald's test to illustrate (Appendix), the teacher might decide that students must answer all four items correctly to demonstrate an acceptable level of understanding of the main idea of the passage. That is, the students should be able to perform this task perfectly if they are to be considered able to read and understand the main idea of the class texts. If the teacher finds that not one of her students answers all four correctly, it may be that none is ready for the sheltered science class. Lowering performance standards after giving the test would not change the science teacher's expectations for the students, but rather give the false impression that the students have the ability to understand the main idea of science texts.

Figure 5.

A Diagram of Stage 5 Procedures
Proposing Performance Standards

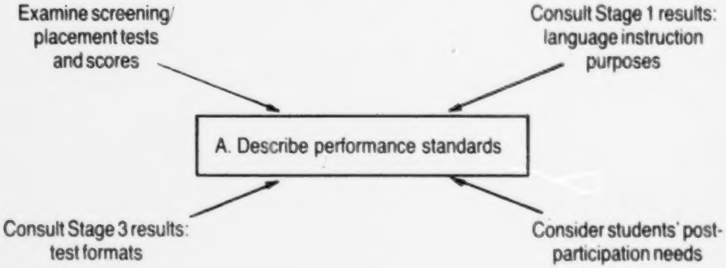
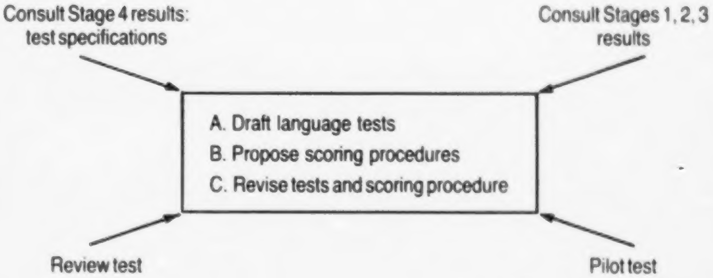

Examine screening/ placement tests and scores
Consult Stage 1 results: language instruction purposes
A. Describe performance standards
Consult Stage 3 results: test formats
Consider students' post-participation needs

Figure 5 displays the procedures that should be used to determine performance standards. Deciding what performance characteristics or numerical score indicates an acceptable performance depends on not only the instructional goals of a particular language class, but also what students are expected to be able to do in subsequent language classes or language-use situations. This is true from the entry-level perspective as well. When defining what students should be able to do as they progress through a course, it is important to have a clear understanding of what they can do as they enter it. Consequently, the important steps in defining the performance standard for a test include determination of students' skills as they enter the class (usually through examining students' scores on whatever screening or placement test is used) and consideration of the language instruction goals and of students' language needs in situations for which the language class prepares them. Of course, the performance standard should reflect the format that was determined in earlier stages to be most appropriate for the particular CBI context in which the tests will be used.

Figure 6.

A Diagram of Stage 6 Procedures
Writing the Tests


Consult Stage 4 results: test specifications
Consult Stages 1, 2, 3 results
A. Draft language tests
B. Propose scoring procedures
C. Revise tests and scoring procedure
Review test
Pilot test

The sixth stage of the guidelines (Figure 6) includes not only writing the test but also revising it. The results of either pilot testing or a critical review can guide revision. Pilot testing is the best way to collect information for revising a test. This procedure provides evidence to determine if the test instructions and tasks are clear enough, if the administration time is adequate, and if students actually interpret the items and tasks as the test writers intended. On objectively scored tests, item statistics such as *item difficulty* and *item discrimination* can easily be calculated. Finding a suitable group of may be difficult, but the information the process supplies makes the effort worthwhile.

Sometimes, however, pilot testing is simply not feasible. In these situations, the teacher/test writer should conduct especially thorough preadministration test review and revision. Ideally, a test should be reviewed by a language teacher (other than the test writer) who is familiar with the particular situation for which the test is developed. Very often, colleagues are willing to exchange review responsibilities. When this is not possible, the test writer should review the test after allowing several days of objective distance to transpire. The reviewer should examine the items or tasks, making sure that they are appropriate and clear. The directions should be reviewed to be certain that they accurately delineate what the students have to do. Obviously, both pilot testing and test review require that the dark and dreary test-writing nights occur several days before the test administration date.

Stage 7, revising the tests, is performed after the tests are given and before scores are calculated or performance reports prepared. Despite the careful development procedures and the review process, there might be items or tasks which simply do not work—items or tasks that are confusing, ambiguous, or flawed in some other way. If problematic items or tasks are identified, they should be eliminated from the test. The results of those items or tasks should not contribute to students' scores or performance profiles. Although this means that the number of items or points might be changed from the original plan, it is only fair that students' test performance be assessed on the basis of good items rather than poor ones. Sometimes this results in an unexpected number of items—for example, a test that was intended to have 100 points might end up with 99 or 98. However, teachers who are troubled by a feeling of lost symmetry should be consoled by the fact that they have actually created more accurate measures of their students' abilities by eliminating poor items before calculating test scores.

Stage 8, the final stage of the guidelines, directs the teacher/test writer's efforts to determine the reliability and validity of the new test. An important consideration in this process is whether the test or test sections are objectively or subjectively scored. Objectively scored items are those which have only one correct response. In the matching section of Macdonald's test, for example, "dancing" can only be matched with "cerebellum," so one can say that this section is objectively scored. The essay, on the other hand, is subjectively scored. There is more than one correct answer—in fact, any individual's essay might be awarded the full 20 points even though each essay might be quite different. Both approaches to scoring are equally valuable although they are useful for different types of tasks.

Establishing the reliability of the scoring procedure is especially important for tests that are subjectively scored. One way to do this might be to ask the colleague who reviewed the test before it was given to score the tests as well. A correlation between the teacher/test writer's scores and the reviewer's scores establishes *interrater reliability*, an estimate of the consistency of scoring procedure across different scorers. Another way that consistency can be examined is to estimate *intrarater reliability*. To do this, the teacher/test writer scores the entire set of tests once, then scores them again perhaps the next day without consulting the first rating. While the teacher/test writer might not find perfect agreement between the first and second ratings (a correlation of 1.00), the scoring procedure should be clear enough to yield a high degree of consistency. Intrarater reliability lower than approximately .80 indicates that there is a serious problem with the consistency of the teacher/test writer's scores. The scoring procedure should therefore be modified to improve the consistency before reporting the students' scores.

Stage 8 also outlines steps to ensure the validity of a test; that is, whether it measures what it is intended to measure and measures it comprehensively. Expert review is one manner in which the validity of a test is estimated. The same reviewer who examined the test directions and content can be asked to make judgments regarding the appropriateness of the test content and the extent to which the test measures enough of whatever concept or skill it is designed to assess. For example, Macdonald indicates in her specifications that the test is intended to measure students' recognition of the main ideas in a reading passage. Does the first section of the test, the labeling task, require students to have understood the main idea of the passage (the name, position, and function of the four main parts of the central nervous system)? Not really, since the students do not need to understand the function of the parts to find and label them correctly. If this were the only task on the test, the test's validity would be weak. While the labeling task might require recognition of these four important parts and their location in the central nervous system, in terms of comprehensiveness, the test would fall short because it does not measure the students' understanding of the function of these parts. Inclusion of the second (matching) and fourth (essay) tasks increases the validity of the test with regard to its comprehensiveness. These tasks require the students to demonstrate their understanding of the function of the various parts of the brain as well as their location and labels.

Conclusion

Writing appropriate content-based language tests that are reliable and valid demands a commitment of time and care. The guidelines outlined in this article are not a shortcut to test writing—they do not produce instant tests. Teachers who follow the guidelines will devote long hours to creating their tests, just as they did before using the guidelines. However, they will be able to feel a greater sense of assurance in their tests' appropriateness, reliability, and validity as well as in the extent to which the tests measure their students' progress in both language and content mastery. ■

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Appendix

Sample Content-Based Language Test

Instructions: Read the following passage carefully. As you read, you may want to make notes or circle important information that is in the text. When you have finished reading, you may begin the test. During the test, you should feel free to go back and reread the passage. Most of the information that you will need to answer the questions is in the passage itself.

The Central Nervous System

The central nervous system controls the human body. It's like the captain of a ship. Our brain is part of the central nervous system. It directs and controls everything that the human body does. There are four parts of the central nervous system: (a) the cerebrum, (b) the cerebellum, (c) the medulla, and (d) the spinal cord. The cerebrum, the cerebellum, and the medulla are all located in the brain. The spinal cord goes from the base of the brain down one's back. All of the different parts of the central nervous system have different functions.

The cerebrum is the largest part of the brain. It is the part of the brain that controls the senses, that is, seeing, hearing, feeling, tasting, and touching. It controls thinking and memory. People with good memories can remember many things. It also controls voluntary movement. Voluntary movement is movement that you choose to make. It is movement that you can control. Walking and talking are examples of voluntary movement.

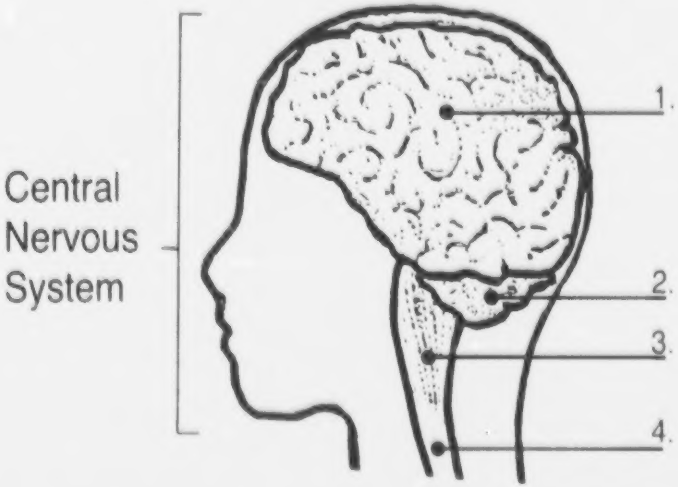
The cerebellum is located at the base of the cerebrum. It controls our sense of balance. If we didn't have balance, we would fall down. The cerebellum also controls coordination. Coordination is the ability to have all the different parts of one's body move and work together. Dancers and athletes, for example, must have good coordination.

The medulla controls involuntary movement. It is found in between the cerebellum and the spinal cord. It controls things that your body does without thinking. For example, it controls how you breathe, how your heart beats, and when you blink your eyes.

The spinal cord is the part of the central nervous system which carries information and messages to and from the brain. The spinal cord goes from the base of the neck, down the back. It is like a telephone wire. The messages and information that it carries are called impulses. These impulses must go through the spinal cord in order to get to the brain. The brain is able to send messages back to the body. These messages from the brain also must go through the spinal cord. If messages cannot go through the spinal cord, then the person is paralyzed. Often people who are paralyzed cannot move or talk.

Instructions:

1. Using the diagram below, label the four major parts of the central nervous system.



2. Draw a line from each part of the central nervous system to the activities that it controls.

Central Nervous System Part	**Activity**
Example:	Walking
	a. Talking
Cerebrum	b. Feeling cold
	c. Breathing
Cerebellum	d. Dancing
	e. Solving a math problem
Medulla	f. Sweating
	g. Telling a story
Spinal cord	h. Carrying impulses

3. Complete the following sentences using the most correct vocabulary word from the list.

voluntary
coordination
paralyzed
to control
to be located
memory
involuntary

a. In order to play sports, you need good ____________________ .

b. The medulla ________________ in between the cerebellum and the spinal cord.

c. Movements that you control are ____________________________ .

d. Coughing is an example of ______________________ movement.

e. People whose spinal cords are damaged are often ___________ .

f. A student who has a good __________ usually gets good grades.

g. Messages from the brain are carried through the spinal cord and ________________ the body's activities.

4. Write a one-paragraph essay explaining what parts of the brain are most important when you are playing a sport. You may choose any sport—soccer, tennis, swimming, basketball, football, and so forth.

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The CATESOL Journal

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Realbooks: Literature as Content In ESL Classrooms

■ **ESL instructors at Los Angeles City College have developed a literature-based curriculum for their intermediate and advanced students. This paper examines this curriculum as well as the theoretical premises which inform it. The theoretical support for teaching literature in the ESL classroom comes from a variety of sources: Stephen Krashen, Frank Smith, George Dillon, Hans-Georg Gadamer, and Augustine. This paper also examines the work of Brinton, Snow, and Wesche as well as Collie and Slater, who have directly addressed the classroom issue of literature as ESL content.**

Finally, this paper discusses how literary texts like *Island of the Blue Dolphins*, *Rumble Fish*, and *The Red Pony* are incorporated into the community college ESL reading and writing curriculum and ends with some insights derived from this literature focus. Questions which still need to be examined are discussed.

In the past decade, reading has become a central focus in theoretical discussions in and out of the classroom. In critical theory, deconstructive, reader-response, and hermeneutic theorists have foregrounded the activity of reading. In linguistics, Stephen Krashen (1985) has formulated the reading hypothesis to explain how learners develop writing competence. In cognitive psychology, Frank Smith (1988) has demonstrated just what it means to "read like a writer" (p. 25).

As ESL teachers, we have studied this theoretical material and have attempted to develop appropriate pedagogical translations. During the past decade, the faculty of Los Angeles City College has developed a curriculum founded on the assumption that literature provides a powerful medium for ESL instruction. The first part of this paper examines those theoretical tenets that have most influenced our pedagogical decisions to foreground the use of literature in our ESL classes. The second part of this paper describes the curricular implications of these tenets.

Stephen Krashen and Frank Smith

Much has already been written about ways that Krashen's input hypothesis speaks to the ESL classroom. We have been interested in applying to our ESL classrooms Krashen's concept of comprehensible input. Krashen's notions translate into an ESL classroom in which discipline-specific materials are used to provide students with an enriched linguistic context inside which both language acquisition and language learning can take place. As a result, our curricular focus has been to immerse our students in engaging literary texts and to encourage our students to respond to what these texts have to say to them.

Our approach suggests that we enrich the context around which a particular literary text is examined in the classroom. To engage our students in the reading of literature, we have concluded, is to facilitate comprehension of written English. Krashen provides theoretical justification for his concept of teaching in enriched literary contexts:

> First, since the input is concentrated around one subject matter the acquirer has the advantage of a familiar extra-linguistic context. ... Familiarity with context can be a tremendous facilitator of comprehension and thus language acquisition. The more one reads in one area, for example, the more one learns about the area, and the easier one finds subsequent reading in that area. In addition, each topic has its own vocabulary, and to some extent its own style . ... (Krashen, 1985, p. 73)

Enriching the context around which a particular issue is examined has allowed our students to improve their ways of both reading and writing. If, for example, they are studying "nature versus nurture," we encourage the building of readings, both literary and expository, that respond to each other. Some of our teachers focus on a particular theme like nature-nurture throughout their course; others focus on a particular genre (children's literature, the American Western, etc.) to develop this theme. In all of these teaching instances, though, we encourage our students to continually reconsider what a particular issue or genre means to them. Revision becomes both a reading and a writing activity. Structural and stylistic features of written English are investigated along the way.

This focus on enriched contexts in the teaching of ESL reading and writing is further supported by composition studies which have examined schema theory and top-down writing perspectives. George Dillon (1981) speaks for a composition pedagogy that sees language learners as constantly re-examining the knowledge which they bring to texts. Students, he argues, do not bring single parts of this knowledge to reading and writing but complex, interconnected verbal relationships (schemata) to textual understanding. Further, all readers, Dillon contends, move from a general understanding of a text to an understanding of its particularities; that is, readers and writers always move from the "top down." These language learning givens drive all of Dillon's classroom speculations. In regard to vocabulary teaching, for example, he concludes that it "should be taught by examining words in fairly large contexts and discussing the way the word plus the networks of meaning surrounding it contribute to the construction of meanings that are greater, more particular, than the sum of the series of individual words" (p. 154).

We have translated this top-down notion of language instruction to the ESL classroom where vocabulary is consistently seen in its verbal contexts, not only in its sentence and paragraph relationships but in the word's relationship to the entire text. We thus encourage students to respond to how a word is used and reused in the changing contexts of the literary text they are examining. In our view, it is the literary text which provides students with probably the richest source of verbal context. When students encounter a word in the literary work it is enriched in a complex of meaning-generating relationships. It exists in relation to not only an abstract definition, but a network of cognitive-specific interstices. Furthermore, the familiar narrative schema, the most common rhetorical pattern in fiction, helps students comprehend what they are reading.

As ESL teachers, we have also responded in several ways to Frank Smith's (1988) psychological justification for why reading and writing are profoundly interconnected activities. Smith has provided us with a wealth of discussion regarding just what literary texts our ESL students will respond to favorably. Smith describes the reading-writing interconnection in this way:

> To read like a writer we engage vicariously in what the author is writing. We anticipate what the author will say, so that the author is in effect writing on our behalf, not simply showing us how something is done but doing it with us ... bit by bit, one thing at a time, but incalculably over the passage of time, the learner learns through reading like a writer to write like a writer (p. 25).

Clearly, in order for reading to enrich writing, readers must respond to the voices that the text discloses, to be shown by these voices other ways of writing. If the encounter between reader and text manifests a degree of intimacy, then readers will develop more enriched writing voices because they will want to embrace what the text has to say, often in the way it is said. In our ESL classrooms, we encourage our students to respond in several ways to what the text is saying to them—to the authors' and characters' motivations in order for them to see the ways in which they are like or unlike them. Our intent throughout each ESL course is to engage our students with the topic in question, and we have found that an incidental, yet intended, result of this encounter is our students' improved writing and reading strategies.

Influences from Classical and Critical Theory

Some of us are responding to the ESL classroom from our knowledge of literary and rhetorical theory rather than a linguistic and psychological perspective. Interestingly, the conclusions many critical theorists have come to are similar to those made by Krashen and Smith. Our knowledge of classical pedagogy shows the significant role that imitation played for theorists like Quintilian and Augustine. Appropriating the classical Greek educational model, both Quintilian and Augustine speak for the importance of learners to read and respond to the texts of their culture. In Roman education, children from the age of seven read and analyzed texts like the *Illiad* and the *Aeneid* in order to become better readers and writers. In the classical mind-set, invention always preceded and informed arrangement; that is, what writers had to say determined the way they said it. In his *On Christian Doctrine* (397-426 A.D./1958), Augustine echoes much recent language theory:

> For we know many men ignorant of the rules of eloquence who are more eloquent than many men who have learned them or heard of the disputations and sayings of the eloquent. For boys do not need the art of grammar which teaches correct speech if they have the opportunity to grow up and live among men who speak correctly. Without knowing many of the names of the errors, they criticize and avoid anything erroneous they hear spoken on the basis of their own habits of speech. ... (p. 120).

In the ESL classroom, our intent is to see reading as the powerful medium by which our students acquire eloquence, or facility in the reading and writing of texts. Rather than just using the *Illiad/Aeneid* sources for this literacy development, we face a more complicated task because so many more texts are available to us and to our students. Yet we maintain Augustine's attitude toward the activity of reading: that through this particular experience, a reader's facility with the language of texts develops.

Recently, critical theorists have also turned to the theory of hermeneutics to explain what it is that readers and writers do. Philosophers like Hans-Georg Gadamer (1975) conclude that hermeneutics (interpreting the unknown or strange in texts) is not merely the technical activity of textual scholars but the fundamental way by which any reader interprets texts. For Gadamer, textual understanding becomes the significant meaning making activity of the human being. Because texts can be preserved intact through the ages (unlike buildings and pictorial art works), Gadamer sees reading as a heightened, exacting interpretive activity. It is this concept of reading as a special and powerful mode of understanding that many of us have brought to the ESL classroom. And in particular, it is the literary text which can foreground the value of active interpretative reading.

Why Literature?

Why read literature? Our experience as ESL teachers has shown consistently that particularly at the intermediate level, narratives speak powerfully to our students. And our intuition has theoretical justification. Dillon (1981) shows that among language users "there is a preference for or bias toward narrative" (p. 65). Narratives are what children first learning to read are drawn to, and it is narratives that seem to dominate the ways that humans organize experience. Further, literature speaks about human concerns that often transcend their cultural contexts. Our second language students can thus more fluently respond to what the text says and to how its meaning can be applied to their own lives. If textual understanding involves some degree of self-understanding, then reading literature allows our ESL students the optimal opportunity to understand themselves and, along the way, to understand the possibilities for using the English language.

The justification for using literature in the ESL classroom also comes from two other sources: Collie and Slater (1987) and Brinton, Snow, and Wesche (1989). Collie and Slater emphasize that literature addresses basic human concerns which transcend cultural and generational gaps, so that literature can "speak directly to a reader in another country or a different period of history" (p. 3). What the second language learner specifically learns in this reading experience is "an understanding of life in the country where that language is spoken" (p. 4). They further contend that literary texts contain the structures, functions, and discourse features of the language in its natural context. Finally, Collie and Slater emphasize that literature-based ESL classrooms encourage students to develop complex reading strategies which serve them in the reading of other types of academic material—guessing meaning from context, making inferences based on linguistic clues, and so forth.

Brinton, Snow, and Wesche make similar points regarding how the use of content in the ESL classroom makes the learning experience more authentic: "Content-based instruction aims at eliminating the artificial separation between language instruction and subject matter classes which exist in most educational settings" (p. 2). Further, they note that content is an effective teaching medium because it often "builds on the students' previous learning experiences" (p. 2). Literature as content deals with life experiences, and students, both ESL and native English-speakers alike, are encouraged to respond to some aspect of the literary experience which is familiar to them. These authors finally suggest that a content-based ESL curriculum creates an environment conducive to language acquistion: "Classroom experience and second language acquisition theory both tell us that rich second language input in its relevant contexts is the key, where the attention of the learner is focused mostly on the meaning before we analyze the text's discourse and grammatical structures.

Community College Realbooks ESL Program

The ESL program offered by the English Department at Los Angeles City College evolved gradually, its changes reflecting philosophical shifts in second language teaching. In the 20 years that the department has offered the intermediate and advanced levels of ESL, it has been department policy to allow instructors freedom of choice in texts and approaches with an emphasis on outcomes.

Today as in the past the department allows for a variety of approaches. Some instructors use one text for the entire semester, basing all writing assignments upon it and supplementing with additional photocopied handouts. Others adopt a reading-for-pleasure "shotgun" approach and choose three or four books without any necessary thematic connection which they think will interest and involve students. Still others choose books which are thematically related to each other. The most carefully structured approach relies on an expository reader about United States' culture as a bridge between authentic texts: a chapter or two of the textbook is then followed by a "realbook" (the departmental nomenclature) concerned with the same subtheme (e.g., American cultural values).

Course Descriptions: Intermediate ESL

Students in the lower intermediate class can read four texts in one semester. They don't always know this. Coming from a beginning program where the emphasis has been on grammar, or testing into the lower intermediate class upon entry to college, they are often justifiably nervous at the prospect of so much reading. Some have never read a full-length book before in English. The instructor explains during the first meeting and stresses throughout the semester that there is probably no better way—other than complete immersion—to acquire the language, vocabulary, and grammatical structures necessary for standard speech and writing. Students are reassured that formal study of language will be a part of the course but that the majority of the class will consist of reading, writing, and speaking in English for the purpose of developing greater fluency.

After a week or more of getting acquainted exercises—introductions, perhaps writing a paragraph introducing a classmate to the class, and writing an introductory letter to the teacher (who responds with a letter of her own in which she quotes some of the more interesting student observations), students bring the first book, Scott O'Dell's *Island of the Blue Dolphins* (1960) to class. Before starting the book, the instructor tells students a little about the culture and fate of the Chumash Indians. (A class may go to the Southwest Museum in Los Angeles and view the Native American artifact collection there.) Then she shows them the first 15 minutes of the film based on the book and perhaps asks them to write about what they saw. The emphasis for this and other "quickwriting" assignments is on communication of thoughts and impressions to the instructor; writing a lot—fluency—is emphasized over grammatical correctness.

The instructor then walks students through the first few chapters of the novel, reading aloud and pausing to discuss the events of the book. The next few chapters might be assigned for homework but students are told to read each chapter quickly several times and to consult the dictionary as little as possible. They are reassured that they do not have to understand everything they read or know every vocabulary word. All they must bring to class is general understanding of what has happened in the book. Some instructors may provide study guides with emphasis on the content points that the students should know, perhaps in the form of questions. Instructors develop their own materials for each realbook. Chapters or groups of chapters assigned for reading are often supplemented with study questions dealing with issues of content and motive, as well as inferencing. Instructors attempt to vary class activities and alternate reading aloud to the class with small group discussions. In the latter, students are assigned to groups of four, five, or six, with an attempt made to separate same-language speakers, if possible. They are encouraged to discuss the text in these groups and perhaps answer questions together. The teacher is available to clarify difficult points and spends some time with each group. Students who have a clear understanding of what they have read often explain the text to those who feel lost. This is clearly of benefit to both speaker and listener: The speaker gets practice in explaining the text in English, and the listener gets comprehensible input in a nonthreatening situation. Close friendships form in these groups. Often students have never spoken English before in any circumstance because of either fear or lack of opportunity.

After general discussion, the groups choose one question to answer in detail in a report to the class. They are told to use their own words in the explanation and not to simply read the words of the book. At first they may write down the answer, practice it with their group, and then present it to the class. Over the course of the semester, the emphasis shifts to taking notes and speaking more spontaneously from them rather than reading. Shy students are not forced to talk, and the reports at first are given by the more assertive. Gradually, more and more students are willing to report.

The first chapters of *Island of the Blue Dolphins* are difficult for students, but the book becomes easier as students continue to read. Vocabulary, as in most authentic texts, is repeated by the author. It is worked with frequently in class and becomes part of the students' active lexicon. Discussions are supplemented by informal writing assignments, by letters to the instructor giving opinions about character, action, and situation. More of the film is seen each week.

This initial text may take four or five weeks to complete. By the time students have finished the book, they are quite capable of writing a long four-to-five page paper analyzing an aspect of the novel: Karana's relationship with animals, or the wisdom of her choice to leave the island in the end, or the skills she has that enable her to survive. These are formal papers comprising introduction, body and conclusion. Composing processes are discussed and revisions are allowed for content, organization, and language. Students read and react to each other's work.

Other books at the lower intermediate level might include three more children's books and a book for young adults: *Journey Home* (1978) by Yoshiko Uchida, the story of a family returning from a U.S. relocation camp at the end of World War II; *Martin Luther King, The Peaceful Warrior* (1968) by Ed Clayton, and S.E. Hinton's *Rumble Fish* (1975). The King biography is supplemented by videos; Francis Ford Coppola's film version of *Rumble Fish* is shown. The books need not be presented in order of difficulty but in order of time period covered. These books provide students with an introduction to U.S. history and culture. The first three give an overview of patterns of discrimination in U.S. history. On the other hand, *Rumble Fish* presents insight into a dysfunctional white family in which children have been driven to gang membership, a topic of great concern to immigrant students. While the overall picture of the country is not a cheerful one, each book stresses survival, courage, and compassion.

By the end of the class, students have often broken the dictionary habit, can infer meaning from context, have greatly increased their active vocabulary, and can write a formal academic paper.

The midlevel intermediate class continues this approach. Children's books are still used, but by now ongoing students, who have read at least one text at the lower level and often as many as four, are more at home with the process. Students who have tested into this level may be intimidated at first, but veteran students help them in their small discussion groups. The books many teachers use at the intermediate level are not significantly more complex than those of the lower intermediate, as students need time to consolidate reading skills and vocabulary. Those who do not need this time have usually been referred to the high-intermediate course. There is little complaint about the emphasis on children's and young adult texts. The students have enough difficulty with content to realize that they are not ready for adult books, and they apparently find the issues dealt with in the children's books of sufficient interest.

Realbooks for this level might include the highly imaginative and fast-moving *Mrs. Frisby and the Rats of NIMH* (1986) by Robert C. O'Brien; James L. and Christopher Collier's *Jump Ship to Freedom* (1981), an exciting narrative of a young black slave's accidental involvement in some of the key events of U.S. constitutional history; *Homesick, My Own Story* (1982) in which author Jean Fritz describes her painful girlhood transition from China to the United States; and John Steinbeck's *The Red Pony* (1965) with its close study of family life in early 20th century California and its closing meditation on the thrill and heartbreak of the American frontier.

The format for the midlevel intermediate class is similar to that of the previous level: careful review of opening chapters, reading aloud, group discussion and reports, study guides, formal papers. Here, however, questions become more challenging. Now students are asked to demonstrate in a 15-minute quickwriting that they have read the assignment. Again the texts can be thematically related by issues such as family life, self-sacrifice, and exploration of U.S. cultural values.

In the high-intermediate level, adult books are introduced. Louis L'Amour's *The Californios* (1974) set in Malibu and Los Angeles, provides a look at mid 19th-century California history, with side glimpses at Chumash Indian and 19th-century Mexican culture. Jack Finney's *Invasion of the Body Snatchers* (1978), set in northern California, gives a detailed account of small-town 20th-century life in the context of a truly chilling invasion from outer space. One or both movies of the *Invasion of the Body Snatchers* can be shown—the 50's version, an allegory of U.S. anticommunist paranoia, or the '80s film, a startling contrast in which human forces lose out to "pod people" in the end. *Ordinary People* (1976) by Judith Guest once again examines the dysfunctional family, not in the inner city low-income context of *Rumble Fish*, but in the affluent middle class. By the end of the semester students can read Barbara Kingsolver's *The Bean Trees* (1988). With this, they have graduated from popular fiction to "serious literature."

The format of group reports, letters, and formal papers can continue in the high-intermediate class. But there is more emphasis on editing—as not only fluency but the ability to correct surface errors become increasingly important. It is the combination of the two skills which will determine the students' placement the following semester: After the high-intermediate class, the student will be mainstreamed into either a lower level developmental class or the class which serves as the prerequisite for freshman writing. In the high intermediate class, therefore, instructors start to add more examples of expository writing. Articles on writing and second language acquisition might form the introduction to the class followed by an assignment in which students interview successful language learners and write a paper reporting their results. Other expository pieces include articles on the frontier, the small town, the family.

At the end of the high-intermediate ESL class, students take the same departmental examination as the students from the lower developmental class for native English-speakers, a short narrative followed by directions to briefly summarize the selection and to relate it (in varying ways as specified by the question) to the students' own life. These are skills they have practiced in previous intermediate ESL classes. The majority of high-intermediate ESL students are ready by the semester's end for the course prerequisite to freshman writing. Many of these students complete the two semesters of freshman writing offered by the English department.

Insights and Questions

Our focus on authentic whole books (realbooks) has led to both interesting pedagogical insights as well as perplexing questions. Most importantly, we as a department have realized that the bulk of what our developmental writing teachers do in their composition courses for native English-speakers is to a large degree similar to what goes on in the ESL classroom. Both developmental composition teachers and ESL composition teachers encourage students to respond critically to longer texts, and we have found that the ideas that emerge from teaching all levels of writing enrich the teaching of all classes.

Because so many of us make literature the content of our composition courses, we confer each semester to revise the lists of realbooks used in all of our reading and writing courses. This list is an eclectic mix of popular, young adult, and children's literature as well as the occasional classic. Interspersed as well are theoretical texts like Frank Smith's (1988) *Joining the Literacy Club.* Why these texts work or don't work provide for enriching departmental discussions. Further, many of us compose and share materials for the books we use: prereading and prewriting questions, vocabulary activities, reading and small group activities, and essay questions.

We still have many unanswered questions. We continue to ask just how to appropriate Krashen's concept of comprehensible input to our reading and writing concerns. Should our courses have a thematic basis? Should they be organized around genres? Or is a less focused syllabus of titles for a particular course equally effective? We also ask whether the use of audio tapes of particular books is beneficial to our students, or whether it subverts the act of reading by providing a crutch. One of our instructors is even considering whether the use of closed captions for viewing of films will enrich his students' understanding.

Though we as a department cannot provide others with a neat model for effective teaching, we do feel that we have found a pedagogy that has both theoretical and practical justification. The bulk of the students, at all levels of ESL instruction, end each course reading and writing more fluently and with more confidence. Finally, the questions that we continue to ask about our whole-books pedagogy are an insistent reminder to us all of the necessary ambiguity surrounding any significant language experience. This sense of mystery (often even messiness) emerging from the critical and creative uses of language is what we as teachers continue to experience in the classroom and what we are confident our ESL students are beginning to appreciate as they attempt to understand and use the English language. ■

Footnotes

A complete list of the realbooks used in various courses is available from the authors.

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The CATESOL Journal

CATESOL EXCHANGE

What is the Relationship Between Content-Based Instruction and English for Specific Purposes?

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When I was initially asked to answer this question, I felt that I could sum up the relationship in a sentence: *English for specific purposes (ESP)* is a superordinate term for all good ESL/EFL teaching, and content-based instruction (CBI) is a central force in this movement. However, after some reflection and a review of several recent articles on CBI and ESP (see, for example, Johns, 1991; Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1991; and Snow, 1991), I concluded that there's more to this relationship than a single sentence can express.

My purpose here, then, will be to discuss the ESP and CBI movements in a more complete manner than my original response allows. First, I will discuss in what ways the two movements appear to be similar. Then, I will examine some of the features of the two movements that appear to make them different, that separate them in the minds of researchers, curriculum designers, and practitioners. My text is constructed by my own experience and reading; no doubt other would—and perhaps will—take issue with my arguments.

I would like to begin with the similarities between ESP and CBI, for they are the most obvious to me. Both movements stem from practitioners' unease about the separation of language instruction from the contexts and demands of real language use. We worry that general purpose language instruction, or TENOR (Teaching English for No Obvious Reason), cannot prepare students for the demanding linguistic, rhetorical, and contextual challenges of the real world, for example, the workplace or the academic classroom. And there is considerable evidence for our concerns, as Mohan (1986) notes:

> A language is a system that relates to what is being talked about (content) and the means to talk about it (expression). Linguistic content is inseparable from linguistic expression. *But in research and in classroom practice, this relationship is frequently ignored* [italics

> added] . . . In language learning we overlook the fact that content is being communicated. (p. 1)

In both movements, then, there is an effort to discover and use genuine discourse from the real world in the language classroom, to ensure that classroom content reflects the target situation. There is also an effort to engage students in meaningful use of language, rather than in activities that focus upon the language itself. Thus, as Johns and Davies (1983) put it, language becomes a "vehicle for communication" not merely a "linguistic object," studied in isolation in an ESL grammar class, for example. Practitioners in both movements recognize that language classroom activities should be designed to assist students in interacting with content and discourse in cognitively demanding ways, or at the very least, in ways that are similar in use to those in the target language situation.

How do we determine what is authentic language and what are authentic activities? We work closely with experts in the target situation, people who know what students must do and who understand the purposes of content and discourse in their particular contexts. In CBI, there are models for working with content experts (e.g., adjunct and sheltered classes—see Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989); in ESP, there are related models, for example, team teaching (Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1991). Thus both ESP and CBI strive to encourage the transfer of language skills and content to real life by bringing genuine language and authentic classroom activities to students.

What is more interesting—and perhaps disturbing—to me are the perceived dissimilarities between the two movements. One of these differences relates to the scope of each movement's influence. CBI is generally limited to the English as a second language (ESL) setting, in places like the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. ESP, on the other hand, prides itself in being an international movement; in fact, much of the interesting ESP work takes place in countries in which English is a foreign language (Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1991; Swales, 1985). This difference in instructional setting has resulted in the use of a variety of labels to describe courses in which language and content are integrated. Thus, ESP is the conventional term used to designate specific purposes language programs in the English as a foreign language (EFL) setting. In the ESL setting, however, terms such as *content-based instruction*, *workplace ESL*, *vocational ESL*, and *sheltered English* are preferred.[1] Judy Colman (personal communication) recently wrote from Australia that there is "a degree of resistance to using the term ESP" in ESL situations "down-under" as well. Instead, Australians employ terms such as *technical and further education for immigrant students (TAFE)* and *English in the workplace (EWP)*.

We don't find the same resistance to using ESP in the EFL setting, as evidenced by the publications and conferences with ESP in the titles coming out of Latin America, China, the Middle East, and Africa. Subscriptions to *English for Specific Purposes*, a journal which John Swales, Tony Dudley-Evans, and I coedit, evidence the international nature of this movement: Half of our contributors and considerably more than half of our subscribers live in EFL contexts.

CBI is distinguished from ESP in other ways, as well: Though CBI can cover a number of specific purpose contexts and be designed for a number of populations (Mohan, 1986), in California and most of the United States, it has perhaps become most closely linked to sheltered English and the education of children in the K-12 setting. Other models of CBI in the ESL context (such as theme-based and adjunct instruction) are less well known.[2]

ESP, though traditionally focused upon the advanced, adult academic students (Swales, 1985, 1990), still claims to encompass all teaching of specific groups of adults with identifiable needs. This is the reason, I'm convinced, that the ESP Interest Group, which will probably be instituted by TESOL in 1992, originated with workplace ESL professionals whose populations and language classes are quite distinct from the content-based programs in public schools.

There are other contrasts, at least in the minds of EFL curriculum designers and teachers. Whereas CBI is generally a multiskill approach, integrating the four skills in order to make the language learning experience authentic and draw from the learning styles and strategies of the variety of students enrolled (Chamot & O'Malley, 1987), ESP has often been limited to one skill, reading, because this is what students in foreign countries badly need in order to access texts in science and technology. In fact, there are so many ESP reading courses in EFL settings that Mohan (1986) likens the movement to "reading in the content areas" (p. 15). For those interested in this phenomenon, Hudson (1991) provides a useful discussion of a well-developed overseas ESP reading program.

Finally, there are theoretical and research-related differences in scope and focus. ESP has a long research tradition, dating from the early 1960s (Swales, 1985)—a tradition that has drawn from linguistic analyses, from discourse studies, from pragmatics, and recently, from studies of discourse communities (Swales, 1990). *English for Specific Purposes* has published many articles that could just as well have appeared in journals such as *Discourse Processes* or *Applied Linguistics*. Especially in overseas environments, for example, at the Latin American ESP Colloquia, there are many more papers about text-based research than about pedagogy. This is because ESP researchers, particularly those concerned with reading subject texts, are convinced that a thorough and systematic analysis of written discourse is essential to creating a successful curriculum. Over time, this research has expanded from item counts to form/function analyses (Robinson, 1991) and recently into examining a text's uses of authority and the values that underlie its discourse (Benson, 1991). CBI, on the other hand, seems to be much more concerned with the classroom, with student affect, with instructional strategies, and with models. No doubt each tradition can benefit from the research and curricula of the other.

I teach in a CBI program at San Diego State, and I find the contributions of the CBI experts valuable. However, I still consider myself primarily an ESP person, for I find that the movement more specifically illuminates my research and, not incidentally, has enabled me to travel and exchange ideas with colleagues throughout the world. ■

Footnotes

1. Peter Master is a notable exception. Through his column in the *CATESOL News*, he continues to insist that ESP is a term that is appropriate and relevant to EFL contexts as well as ESL teaching/learning situations such as here in California—and I would agree.

2. In foreign language teaching, CBI is typically associated with the immersion education of native speakers of English in Canada and the U.S. However, we are beginning to hear about "content-enriched" foreign language in the elementary school (FLES) programs as well (Curtain & Pesola, 1988).

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What Are Some Considerations for Teacher Training in Content-Based Instruction?

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As content-based instruction (CBI) increasingly replaces language-based syllabi (e.g., grammatical, notional/functional) in the teaching of English as a second language (ESL), the question of how to train teachers to implement this form of instruction effectively gains importance. CBI requires an adjustment on the part of the ESL teacher, who may be intimidated by the prospect of having to teach subject matter with which he or she may not be familiar. This fear of subject matter is well known to English for specific purposes (ESP) practitioners, who have long had to deal with the same issue, but for ESL it raises questions about teacher training for new teachers and teacher development for those who have been teaching ESL for some time.

To the content-area classroom teacher (henceforth, the content instructor), the term *content-based instruction* may seem redundant for, after all, on what else would instruction be based? In fact, this term derives from the term *content-based* language *instruction*, originally within the realm of ESP, but now more broadly linked to ESL instruction. Its primary purpose is to differentiate the more traditional language-based language instruction, that is, the study of a language itself as subject matter (with its parts of speech and verb tenses and sentence structures) from language instruction that uses content as a vehicle for achieving language mastery.

The melding of subject matter and language—two conventionally distinct areas of instruction with different instructor-training techniques—is no longer seen exclusively as an ESL methodology. The reason is that, especially in the United States, large numbers of non-English proficient (NEP) or limited English proficient (LEP) students have entered the mainstream curriculum. Thus, content instructors, who could once presuppose the students' mastery of the language of instruction, are now increasingly faced with students who have difficulty understanding their lectures, the textbooks, and the mix of formal and informal language with which they have enlivened their classroom presentations over the years. As they gain experience with this new student population, these mainstream instructors are realizing that many of their "poor" students are not poor in the sense that native speakers might be so labeled but poor solely in their mastery of the language of instruction. In other words, content instructors have had to become aware that language is fundamental to their students' grasping of content, just as language instructors have had to realize that students need the ability to perform and succeed in subject areas, not just to learn about the language.

Although content-based instruction is the foundation of language across the curriculum, immersion education and ESP, the present discussion is limited to teacher training issues in theme-based, sheltered, and adjunct language instruction as these are more directly relevant to the ESL curriculum.

Theme-Based Language Instruction

Theme-based language instruction is the codification of a practice that many experienced ESL/EFL teachers have come to spontaneously and independently. Even in the heyday of the grammatical syllabus, a class could not do grammar all the time. Reading was the most logical alternative, and what to read was either selected randomly by the teacher or selected with input from the students. Reading (and writing) in depth, that is, using several texts within a single theme, seemed preferable to reading and writing on many different topics (see, for example, Raimes, 1983) because it allowed the necessary schemata for that theme to be developed and topic-specific vocabulary to be recycled and enlarged upon. This led to the idea that all ESL instruction could be based on themes, which would not only allow the development of all language skills and subskills (e.g., reading, listening, grammar, oral skills) simultaneously but also foster the higher order critical thinking skills such as separating fact from opinion. Themes can be either random selections, chosen and ordered with student input (e.g., education, nuclear energy, the drug problem) or subsets of a larger unifying theme (e.g., product development, advertising strategies, and consumer behavior as a subset of marketing).

Theme-based instruction requires teacher training in curriculum and materials development, particularly in regard to the conducting of needs assessments to insure that the selection of themes is based on students' interests. This requires much work on the part of the ESL teacher, but as publishers become aware of this type of instruction, more commercial theme-based texts are becoming available. However, teachers need to exercise great care in selecting these texts and the themes contained therein, for they must have the support of the students for the themes chosen and not blindly rely on those selected by a publisher or author.

Sheltered Content Instruction

Like all content-based language instruction, sheltered content instruction is addressed to nonnative speakers. However, it is taught by a content instructor, not an ESL teacher. Students are "sheltered" from their native English-speaking peers, almost always in a high school, community college, or university setting, and given instruction in a specific subject such as biology, history, and so forth. The idea is that such a setting provides a low-anxiety environment for these students, who would otherwise be competing with native speakers. (See the article by Glaudini-Rosen in this volume for a more in-depth discussion of sheltered instructional strategies.)

Sheltered content instruction requires considerable teacher development. In addition to knowing their subjects well, being successful teachers in their regular content classes, and being able to choose texts that are accessible to students because of their clarity or organization, sheltered content teachers must learn how to adjust their speech in the classroom to compensate for their students' developing listening skills. For this reason, sheltered content instructors are usually experienced classroom teachers who have come to recognize the kinds of problems that LEP students have had in their regular content classes. They often display an extraordinary humanistic commitment to helping these students, coupled with an uneasy recognition that their hitherto successful teaching techniques are not sufficient for LEP students. Since the means to develop the necessary teacher competencies for sheltered instruction are the same as those required for the content instructor in the adjunct model, these will be discussed in greater detail in the next section.

Adjunct Language Instruction

One of the most successful means of implementing content-based instruction is through adjunct language instruction. In this model, a language teacher works in tandem with a content instructor. The language teacher usually attends the content class, which guides the syllabus for instruction in the language class. Concomitantly, the language class provides the necessary language skills for students to be able to perform successfully in the content class. This naturally requires close cooperation between the content and the language instructors.

For historical reasons, content has always seemed more important than language instruction. It is thus generally thought that the language instructor must be subordinate to the content instructor in the adjunct relationship. This attitude is described in Johns and Dudley-Evans (cited in Swales, 1985) as "that suspicion and even hostility which language teachers often report encountering when attempting to set up some sort of cooperation with subject teachers" (p. 152). Experience with the model is beginning to show, however, that it is the content instructors who usually have to make the larger adjustment, usually by altering their lecture style, textbook selection, test formats, written assignments, and expectations, all within the limits of the course since such adjustments should not result in a watered-down version of the original syllabus.

While language instructors may initially be intimidated by having to deal with an area of knowledge they are not familiar with, they very quickly see that their language teaching experience serves them well in helping their students deal with new subject matter. No one expects them to be experts in the content area, and they can ask the students or the content instructors if necessary if they find they do not understand something. In fact, the language teachers usually enjoy learning the new material. The content instructors, on the other hand, often come to the adjunct model with the feeling that their teaching methods are somehow inadequate. Their tried-and-true techniques do not work with the LEP students in their classes, but simply failing these students is not an acceptable solution. Their adjustment requires a reevaluation of their entire method of teaching, which is usually very teacher centered. Once they realize how to implement more student-centered teaching practices—that is, by becoming more culturally sensitive, avoiding the use of colloquial idioms (e.g., the following samples from a biology lecture: *chew the living heck out of you, mess around with, lickety-split*), using the blackboard more frequently, encouraging more language use in the classroom through hands-on activities and group work, and sometimes even incorporating ESL techniques such as journal writing and role play into their own classrooms—they usually come to sincerely appreciate the teaching strategies of the language teachers they work with. They often find, once the initial hurdles are crossed, that they become better teachers as a result (Aguirre, Brinton, Master, Phillips, Steidel, & Sutherland, 1991; Cummings, 1991; Wesche & Ready, 1985).

One of the first issues to be dealt with in adjunct language instruction is thus the relationship between the language instructor and the content instructor. The best way to improve the relationship is to communicate, and communication is best fostered through preservice and in-service training. A workshop at Cañada College in Redwood City, CA serves as a good example of such training. It involved a preprogram discussion of potential problems that instructors could foresee—with ESL teachers and content instructors meeting separately—followed by an extended role play of a coordination meeting (cf. Snow & Brinton, 1990) in which both content and language instructors were asked to take on roles reflecting the various situations that might arise in an adjunct relationship (e.g., students giving more attention to the content class than to the language class because they are doing poorly on exams, content teachers being unwilling to adjust their original syllabus for the LEP students, language teachers receiving insufficient cooperation from content instructors, the administration wanting proof of effectiveness to justify funding of such a class).

The next phase of the preservice workshop required a content instructor to give a sample lecture in a content area. Prior to the lecture, the instructor left the room while the remaining participants discussed issues such as frequency of blackboard use, using group work for content-based tasks, using hands-on experiences and visuals, defining terms, and relating material to the culture and experience of the students, concerns discussed in Crandall (1987). During the lecture, the participants were asked to note potential student difficulties in two columns, one devoted to content matters (terms, explanations, definitions, etc.), the other to language matters (rate of speech, idiomatic phrases, cultural metaphors, grammatical structures, etc.). After the lecture, the participants discussed the problems that students were likely to have with the material and the workshop leaders led a discussion on language issues in an adjunct program, including study skills, grammar, reading/writing, and listening/speaking.

In the next phase, the group broke into specific content areas (e.g., social sciences and western civilization, mathematics, science). The content instructors met with their ESL counterparts to discuss instruction. In the social sciences and western civilization content area, King, Fagan, Bratt, and Baer (1987) suggest, for example, that content instructors use both oral and written activities in the content class, relate new material to the lives of the students, break down content information into manageable chunks, and make frequent checks for comprehension. Language instructors in the same content area should focus on vocabulary, use social science textbooks with a lower reading level in the language component, teach map and chart reading, and devote time to preparing oral and written reports in class.

In the mathematics content area, Dale and Cuevas (1987) suggest that content instructors communicate—not just present— mathematical concepts, provide extensive hands-on experiences to allow native English-speaking and ESL students to interact with each other and the teacher, provide activities based on students' real-life experiences, and allow students to develop their own word problems. ESL instructors in the same content area should teach math vocabulary (e.g., *column, rational, equal*), syntax (e.g., prepositions, comparisons, the passive voice, logical connectors) and semantics (e.g., the referents of variables); teach up-and-down as well as left-to-right eye movements for reading mathemetics texts; and provide word problems with too little, too much, and just enough information, which students must identify and correct.

In the science content area, Kessler and Quinn (1987) suggest that content instructors present new terms in science contexts rather than isolated lists and provide numerous hands-on activities. They also suggest that correction be focused on accuracy and interpretation of truth, not accuracy of language. ESL instructors in the same content area should teach vocabulary more than morphology and syntax and be willing to handle basic science concepts and the processes of scientific inquiry.

In the final phase of the preservice workshop, the content instructors convened separately from the ESL instructors so that each group could discuss what they had learned. Then the entire group met together to consolidate their experience (Brennan, 1986).

The purpose of the preprogram workshop was to acquaint future adjunct language instructors with some of the issues they were likely to encounter in their content-based classes. After the workshop, meetings at Cañada College were held every two to four weeks. In this way, adjustments could be made as the program evolved. This helped instructors to decide, for example, whether the number of hours in each segment (content and ESL) were sufficiently balanced for the proficiency level of the student population, whether more counseling was required to boost motivation, and whether the chosen materials were working effectively. More importantly, it provided a forum for the ESL and content instructors to voice their concerns and maintain good communications with each other.

Conclusion

Content-based instruction represents a shift away from "many existing methods, in which language skills are taught in isolation from substantive content" (Snow, Met, & Genesee, 1989, p. 201). The sheltered model requires that content teachers become more familiar with the kinds of language problems that LEP students have and adjust their classroom language and techniques to better meet the needs of all students in the classroom. Similarly, in theme-based instruction, ESL instructors infuse the language class with interesting, relevant topics or incorporate content areas from their students' other classes into the ESL curriculum. This job is more equitably shared in the adjunct model. Within this model the two teachers concerned can retain their strengths in their areas of expertise, whether language or content, but they must make adjustments in their teaching so that they move towards the area of expertise of their coteachers. Collaboration must take place in some form or another for content-based adjunct instruction to succeed. If the funding is not available for extensive preprogram and in-program workshops such as the one described above, collaboration has to take place on the teachers' own time. Without it, one can expect only the rancor that stems from stereotypical notions of what and who is more important, and this does nothing to serve our students. ■

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The CATESOL Journal

CATESOL EXCHANGE

How Can ESL and Content Teachers Work Effectively Together in Adjunct Courses?

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The ESL teacher must develop a good working relationship with the content instructor if an ESL adjunct course is to be successful. There will be more opportunities for collaboration if colleagues are flexible, caring, and concerned. ESL instructors face many challenges in doing this for any number of reasons: content instructor unfamiliarity with second language learning; disregard for ESL as a discipline; or hidden agendas to have the ESL class serve in a tutoring function rather than as a language acquisition class. However, most content instructors who agree to work in an ESL adjunct situation are sensitive to language issues. How can we develop a good working relationship with the content instructor? Allow me to describe the modified adjunct course I teach at Glendale Community College and explain how I fostered that important relationship.

In 1990 the College Access Program at Glendale Community College proposed the creation of a number of *special paired classes* or *connected courses*, which were meant to improve the performance of students in content classes. This presented the opportunity for the creation of a content-based ESL course in which the ESL students were separated from the general student population in the classroom. In this sheltered adjunct class, we decided to pair the advanced reading and composition class, ESL 165, with a course in social science, Social Science 123—Asians in America. We limited enrollment to 25 students and arranged our class schedules so that the students would go to their ESL class on Mondays and Wednesdays from 9 to 11 a.m. and then immediately to their social science class from 11 a.m. to noon on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays. Since this was the first attempt at Glendale College to implement an adjunct class in this area, I felt that an analysis of student needs in the social science class had to be done before the ESL class materials development could begin.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) state that a needs analysis must determine the "necessities, lacks, and wants" of learners as well as the course objectives. Such an analysis brings the learners into the design of the syllabus and materials development. The *necessities* of the course were the required instructional objectives which had been predetermined by the course outlines used at Glendale Community College. The *lacks* could be defined as skills, knowledge, or abilities that the students lacked as determined by someone other than the learners. To determine lacks, I created a questionnaire for the social science content instructor, Mako Tsuyuki, to complete (see Appendix for a copy of the questionnaire). His answers helped me determine what skills and areas to emphasize in my syllabus and materials. Additionally, I attended three of his class lectures to determine lacks. The *wants* were determined by questionnaires given to all students (native English-speakers as well as nonnative speakers) in his regular Social Science 123 classes.

The needs analysis got my relationship with the content instructor off to a good start. Our meeting to discuss the results of the questionnaire presented an excellent opportunity to get his comments and correct any misunderstandings or omissions in regard to his responses. The questionnaire revealed the instructor's concerns in a number of areas. The first lay in the area of speaking skills. He felt that students needed to ask questions about the readings and respond to questions in class. Listening skills were important because of the rapid speech in lectures. Reading skills needed were for understanding vocabulary and main ideas. Writing clearly was also very important. After meeting with Mako Tsuyuki, I realized that new information presented in his lectures was very important, and I responded to his needs by incorporating exercises to develop skills he felt were necessary to get good grades in his class. I believe that being responsive to the content instructor's needs from the very beginning was an important first step in building mutual respect. It showed him I was on his side.

The meeting also gave me the opportunity to inform the content instructor of the instructional goals of my class and how I proposed to integrate the language skills of writing, reading, listening comprehension, and speaking with a focus on content. I asked him to let me review essay topics from past exams so I could use them for practice essays in my class. I assured him that I would alter these questions and that I wanted them so that students could practice writing in the same discourse modes. For example, comparison and contrast were frequently used, as in this prompt: Describe the similarities and diffferences between early Chinese and Japanese immigrants. Descriptive questions were common, as in this question: What were some "push and pull" factors affecting the early immigrants?

Because we jointly built the foundation of the ESL class, Mako Tsuyuki and I developed a team spirit and reached mutual goals. In our subsequent meetings, Mako Tsuyuki asked me questions about student progress, ESL methodology, and language acquisition. I, of course, asked him to clarify content information and had opportunities to further sensitize him to specific language issues in his classroom. These meetings also helped to build trust in each other and respect for our two very different disciplines. When he asked, I explained ESL techniques used to foster language acquisition, such as discussion groups or peer correction, and offered suggestions about how to use these techniques in his class. However, I felt that it was important to offer only when asked because my suggestions could be taken as a pedogogical criticism rather than a sharing of teaching techniques.

Additionally, we both realized the need to maintain frequent communication by having weekly or biweekly meetings. In my modified adjunct, I used the content text from the social science class as the reading text. This required me to keep pace with the content instructor's lectures so that I wouldn't go too slowly or too fast in our content-related class discussion and writing activities. While we tried to have regular weekly meetings in the beginning, we found that these weren't always necessary, and so we met informally as needed. Sometimes the meetings would last much longer than we had expected (2 hours) or they would be no more than 10 minutes. During the meetings we caught up on what we were doing in our respective classes and discussed the progress of the class in general and of particular students in need of help. We also used these opportunities to share information about our respective disciplines.

At about the middle of the semester, we met to discuss student progress and restate our goals for the remainder of the term. This was important because it allowed us the opportunity to negotiate a balance between the remaining course objectives of our respective classes and what the the students could realistically complete. The midsemester and subsequent meetings helped strengthen ties. Developing ties can take many forms, from strictly business—that is, discussing students—to more personal ones, such as inviting the content instructor out to lunch or to have a cup of coffee. Informal meetings give both instructors the opportunity to meet in a neutral setting without pressure to be strictly professional. This was another important means to build a working relationship.

At meetings, I tried to guide Mako Tsuyuki into seeing educational issues in terms of language rather than content mastery alone. When we could agree on some issue being language based rather than content based, I could affect his class. Meetings which were held after his tests provided excellent opportunities for this. After his first test, we met to discuss the problems the students experienced. I was quite frank with him about comments from the students. Most said that vocabulary on the test was difficult or unfamiliar and that they simply hadn't had enough time to finish it. In other words, they spent more time trying to understand the questions than answering them. I suggested using simpler vocabulary and sentence structures in the explanations and test items, giving more examples, grouping similar test-question types together, and especially, allowing enough time for ESL students to finish what would take native English speakers less time. For example, a later test included a multiple choice section and an essay section. I let him know that most students did poorly on the essay because of time limitations. I suggested splitting such a test into two days because ESL students need more time to write. He agreed to do this with later tests. Of course, constructive criticism is a two-way street, so it was important to always ask the content instructor what I could do better in my class. How could I have helped the students prepare for that test better? What weaknesses did the content instructor see that might be language related?

When teaching in an adjunct framework, the language teacher should expect that ESL students will ask questions about the content. I handled this by stating from the beginning that I was the ESL instructor, not the content instructor. While I became familiar with enough content material to correct factual student errors, I made it a point to stress that the students were the content masters. If the students disagreed about information, I asked them to speak to the content instructor. It was important to follow up on these questions, and I always asked him what they had asked. This process served to keep a professional separation between content and ESL. The content instructor knew I wasn't treading in his area of expertise, and I believe that this helped strengthen our relationship.

Content-based instruction is, in my opinion, ideal for ESL instruction at the community college level. Students at this level are above survival ESL needs. But the academic demands placed on them in regular content classes, which are usually taken in addition to ESL classes, are taxing. While traditional ESL classes serve to bridge the linguistic gaps between the students' first and second languages, they focus on language, not content. Content-based ESL classes, where language is the vehicle to content mastery, is an effective way to assist students with the transition to regular content courses. It necessitates, however, many practical considerations—one of the most critical being the need to build a strong working relationship with content instructors. ■

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Appendix

Instructor's Needs Analysis

Instructions: Please respond to the following items by checking the appropriate column. Only think about your students who are NOT native speakers of English in SS 123.

There are *weaknesses* in these *speaking skills:*	Often	Sometimes	Never	N/A
1. Participating in class discussions	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Participating in small in-class groups	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Formulating questions clearly	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Responding to questions	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Interacting with the instructor via comments/questions	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Giving oral presentations	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Pronunciation	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. Other (specify) ____________________	☐	☐	☐	☐

There are *weaknesses* in these *listening skills:*	Often	Sometimes	Never	N/A
9. Following oral dictation	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. Understanding lectures in class	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. Understanding comments/questions of classmates	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. Understanding films/videos shown in class	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. Other (specify) ____________________	☐	☐	☐	☐

There are *weaknesses* in these *reading skills:*	Often	Sometimes	Never	N/A
14. Vocabulary	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. Reading speed	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. Making connections between important ideas from reading assignments to lectures	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. Distinguishing facts from opinions	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. Interpreting charts, graphs, statistics	☐	☐	☐	☐
19. Making logical inferences	☐	☐	☐	☐
20. Understanding the writer's biases/positions on issues	☐	☐	☐	☐
21. Other (specify) ________________	☐	☐	☐	☐

There are *weaknesses* in these *writing skills:*	Often	Sometimes	Never	N/A
22. Grammar (e.g., subject-verb agreement)	☐	☐	☐	☐
23. Mechanics (e.g., punctuation)	☐	☐	☐	☐
24. Proper essay form (e.g., indentation)	☐	☐	☐	☐
25. Organization of ideas (i.e., orderly presentation of ideas)	☐	☐	☐	☐
26. Essay development (i.e., enough supporting details)	☐	☐	☐	☐
27. Clearly stating main ideas	☐	☐	☐	☐
28. Being specific enough (i.e., not overgeneralizing)	☐	☐	☐	☐
29. Summarizing and synthesizing	☐	☐	☐	☐
30. Explaining/defining ideas	☐	☐	☐	☐
31. Comparing and contrasting	☐	☐	☐	☐
32. Arguing/defending a point	☐	☐	☐	☐
33. Describing events in order or a process	☐	☐	☐	☐
34. Showing causes and effects	☐	☐	☐	☐
35. Classifying/grouping together related ideas	☐	☐	☐	☐
36. Other (specify) ________________	☐	☐	☐	☐

There are *weaknesses* in these general *academic skills:*	Often	Sometimes	Never	N/A
37. Coming to see the instructor for help	☐	☐	☐	☐
38. Using available resources (e.g., library, tutoring)	☐	☐	☐	☐
39. Taking efficient lecture notes	☐	☐	☐	☐
40. Completing reading assignments on time	☐	☐	☐	☐
41. Completing writing assignments on time	☐	☐	☐	☐
42. Coming to class late	☐	☐	☐	☐
43. Plagiarism	☐	☐	☐	☐
44. Reading interactively (i.e., marking in text, outlining)	☐	☐	☐	☐
45. Time management	☐	☐	☐	☐
46. Other (specify) ____________________	☐	☐	☐	☐

Instructions: In this section, DON'T think about language problems. Only think about course requirements. Please rate the importance of the following for ANY STUDENT in SS 123 to get a good grade. *Circle* only one number per item.

	Degree of Importance				
	Low				High
47. How important is writing essays?	1	2	3	4	5
48. How important is asking questions?	1	2	3	4	5
49. How important is making comments to lecture/reading?	1	2	3	4	5
50. Writing argumentation/persuasion	1	2	3	4	5
51. Writing comparison/contrast	1	2	3	4	5
52. Describing	1	2	3	4	5
53. Explaining events/processes in logical order	1	2	3	4	5
54. Showing causes and effects	1	2	3	4	5
55. Classifying/grouping together related ideas	1	2	3	4	5
56. Analyzing and summarizing ideas	1	2	3	4	5

	Degree of Importance				
	Low				High
57. Synthesizing ideas drawn from many sources	1	2	3	4	5
58. Drawing main ideas from readings	1	2	3	4	5
59. Drawing main ideas and details from readings	1	2	3	4	5
60. Reading critically and arguing with author's ideas	1	2	3	4	5
61. Thinking critically and arguing with instructor's ideas	1	2	3	4	5
62. Giving oral presentations	1	2	3	4	5
63. Participating in whole-class discussions	1	2	3	4	5
64. Participating in small-group discussions	1	2	3	4	5
65. Other (specify) ____________________	1	2	3	4	5
66. Other (specify) ____________________	1	2	3	4	5

Note. From a survey reported in *Assessing and Meeting ESL Learner Needs Across the Disciplines*, by Kate Kinsella, March, 1990. Paper presented at the meeting of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, San Francisco, CA. Adapted by permission.

The CATESOL Journal

CATESOL EXCHANGE

What is the Relationship Between Workplace Literacy and Content-Based Instruction?

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Workplace literacy has been defined as

> *... more than just knowing how to read. It's also more than having the narrow skills for a specific job. When we use the term "literacy" we include the full array of basic skills that enable an individual to "use printed and written information to function in society, to achieve one's goals, and to develop one's knowledge and potential." (National Assessment of Educational Progress, 1985, cited in Sarmiento & Kay, 1990, p. 3)*

In this general definition, the authors conceive of workplace literacy as a benefit to both native speakers and nonnative speakers of English. In this short article, we focus on workplace literacy as it applies to the ESL population. The vignettes that follow give the flavor of two such situations.

> *The room contains long tables placed end to end. Large tinted windows look down over Market Street where tiny pedestrians and cars speed on their way. At 10 minutes before the hour, a few students have already arrived for class, dressed for the work day that will begin at the end of their two-hour block of English for the workplace. The students come from a myriad of language backgrounds and represent a variety of departments and employment positions within this large bank; the one thing they share is a common need to improve their English language skills. By doing so, employees believe they will improve their current job performance and increase their opportunities for advancement. During the class, they will focus on increasing their proficiency using content drawn from the workplace environment—the company newspaper, interactions among employees and between employees and managers, telephone protocols, computer mail. Les-*

> *sons are based on these real-life uses of language. The two instructors are independent contractors hired by the bank to provide 10 week-long blocks of instruction.*
>
> *In another part of the city, a small but growing bakery known for its rich desserts made with fresh ingredients employs a production workforce that is Hispanic, Vietnamese, Indonesian, and Chinese. While most of the time employees are involved in actions—weighing, mixing, baking, decorating—they also need to be able to use English language skills. They need, among other things, to understand instructions, acquire the ability to read a work order, and follow safety instructions and maintenance work procedures. In worksite-based classes designed on the basis of a "literacy audit," workers develop English language proficiency in areas directly related to the needs of their jobs. Classes are offered in six-week segments, provided by Project EXCEL, a workplace literacy program funded by the U.S. Department of Education as a training program offered by the Career Resources Development Center.*

Though a great deal of variation exists among workplace literacy programs, these two serve to illustrate some of the points which we make about the relationship between workplace literacy and content-based approaches. In order to clarify this relationship, we compare the two approaches in terms of several key dimensions: audience, location, purpose, content, and teachers.

Dimensions

Who Is It For? Workplace literacy programs such as the EXCEL program are designed for adults who are working. As we mentioned, the participants may be native speakers of English or they may be in various stages of acquiring English as a second language. Content-based ESL instruction, on the other hand, can be designed for any age group all the way from elementary school children through college students. The participants are by definition acquiring English as a second language.

However, the differences in the two audiences go beyond age and native language. Though rarely articulated, there is an essential class difference in that workplace literacy programs are most often geared for workers such as those in the dessert company example, while content-based instruction is typically designed for students pursuing an academic program. When and if these students eventually join the workforce, they will probably not be working at the lowest levels of the production force. In this sense, the distinction betweeen the two types of programs reflects the vocational/academic split which runs through so much of our educational system. (This is not limited to the U.S. Many if not most other countries make a similar or stronger separation.)

Where Does It Take Place? Workplace literacy programs may take place at a worksite or at a site near the workplace. Content-based ESL programs generally take place in a school or university setting.

What Is the Purpose and Content? Both types of programs make the same basic assumption—that it is better to teach language-related skills in context than in isolation (Mohan, 1986). Thus the purpose of both is to integrate language development with content so that language and/or literacy will be learned in a more meaningful context. In the case of content-based approaches, the content is usually math, science, history, or other academic disciplines. In the case of workplace literacy, the content is the knowledge and skills needed for particular jobs. For example, some of the bank employees needed to learn how to write more effective memoranda. Others needed to improve their skills at decoding and sending computer mail. Still others, customer service representatives, needed to work on telephone protocols for handling customer complaints. All of these employees were working on language set within specific workplace contexts.

How Is the Content Determined? In content-based ESL, academic needs and state frameworks determine the content to be taught, though individual teachers do usually have some flexibility in adapting these frameworks to the proficiency levels and needs of individual classes. In workplace literacy programs, on the other hand, the determination of content depends on two major variables. One of these is the linguistic demands of the particular workplace. To determine these linguistic demands, an instructor or curriculum specialist studies the particular job to find out what kinds of language employees need in order to function effectively in that environment. For example, in the second job situation described above, EXCEL curriculum developers conducted a literacy audit to determine what reading, computation, and communicative skills were required for workers to perform job tasks effectively. EXCEL staff collected all printed materials and observed the working environment on several occasions. They also videotaped and audiotaped the working environment, including workers' performance and communication. These data provided an exhaustive inventory of language functions in the workplace. The other major variable is the level of participants' communicative skills, usually determined through some form of needs assessment at the beginning of the program. The literacy audit, then, provides a specific description of the communicataive demands of the workplace, while the needs assessment looks at students' skills in relation to those workplace demands.

Who Teaches It? Both content-based ESL and workplace literacy programs use similar teaching configurations. In some cases, a language teacher teams with a content or skills instructor in either the same classroom or separate ones. In other cases, a content or skills instructor who has been trained in language and literacy development assumes responsibility for both content and language. In a third configuration, a language teacher who has a background in a skill or content area assumes full responsibility. No matter what configuration is used, both types of programs require some cross-fertilization of teachers who are skilled in language development and teachers who are skilled in the particular work or content area.

Conclusion

ESL professionals need to consider the relationship between content-based ESL and workplace literacy because the ESL workplace is itself changing. Older stuents are coming into programs, the numbers of immigrants and refugees are increasing, and employers are beginning in some cases to take over the responsibility for training their workers in language skills. We need to be aware that opportunities exist to work with employers as ESL professionals and to consider the role we as ESL professionals want to play in workplace literacy. Is there a place for us outside of schools and colleges? This brief foray into the world of workplace litracy suggests that there is. ■

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The CATESOL Journal CATESOL EXCHANGE

What Do VESL and Content-Based Instruction Have in Common?

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Vocational English as a second language (VESL) has, in general, been defined as English language instruction that concentrates on the linguistic and cultural competencies requisite for employment. If we assume the definition of content-based instruction to be "the integration of particular content with language-teaching aims" (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989, p. 2), then the connection between the two should be obvious. In fact, VESL serves as an excellent example of content-based instruction.

Basically, there are three types of VESL instruction: (a) general VESL, (b) occupational-cluster VESL, and c) occupation-specific VESL.

General VESL refers to language instruction related to finding a job, maintaining a job, and advancing on the career ladder. Known also as prevocational ESL, it is content-based language instruction in so far as it focuses on teaching English in the context of employment. General VESL courses normally introduce language—communicative skills, grammatical structures, vocabulary—and cultural information, all relating to the world of work. For the most part, students enrolling in general VESL have an array of occupational interests. The unifying element is that all of the students seek general work-related language and content. A typical class covers such topics as reading and interpreting want ads, filling out job applications, answering questions for job interviews, and reading and interpreting transportation and schedule information. Other topics might include understanding and giving directions, clarifying information, making excuses, and apologizing.

Developing cultural competency in a general VESL course is as important as developing linguistic competency. Instructors must provide students with pertinent information regarding the workplace culture as an integral component of instruction. The possible areas covered in teaching cultural competency include understanding work schedules, time sheets, paychecks and deductions, benefits, employee forms, safety rules, and unions. This cultural information is taught through discussions or readings in English and followed up with other language activities for reinforcement. It may also be communicated in the students' native language when concepts are too complicated to be explained in English at the particular ESL level being taught. These types of cultural notes may also be presented in written form for students who are literate in their first language, as they are in the VESL textbook, *English That Works* (Savage, How, & Yeung, 1982).

The second model of VESL instruction, *occupational-cluster VESL*, provides instruction for a group of occupations that are bound together by common language needs, technical skills, and work culture. VESL for health workers, VESL for restaurant workers, VESL for service workers all fit into this category of occupational-cluster VESL. As an example, VESL for service workers may cover linguistic competencies and cultural competencies relevant to work in stores, restaurants, hotels, gas stations, and repair shops (see, for instance, Wrigley, 1987). A course such as this one aims for students to gain mastery in communicative language skills, reading and writing skills, grammatical structures, and terminology that are basic to survival in all service work. In addressing cultural competence, the instructor would also teach content, including job interviewing, job performance, on-the-job expectations, customer relations, employee evaluations, and critical thinking for the workplace, all specific to service work.

The primary objective of the third type of VESL instruction, *occupation-specific VESL*, is to develop linguistic and cultural competence in a specific occupation. Occupation-specific VESL enables students to enter or continue in a vocational training program, find employment, and function on a job. The linguistic and cultural competencies parallel what is taught in occupational-cluster VESL. However, the focus is much narrower, such as VESL for janitorial workers or VESL for electronics workers.

VESL bridge classes, such as those offered at City College of San Francisco, are a variation of this occupation-specific model. These bridge classes were instituted primarily because limited English proficient (LEP) students were not succeeding in mainstream vocational courses and programs, even though they had reached the recommended ESL level for entry into such courses. Bridge classes involve the application of various ESL instructional techniques to teach a specific vocational skill. Although commmunicative language skills, certain grammatical structures, and vocabulary are taught, the instruction emphasizes gaining proficiency in the content (i.e., vocational skill). VESL bridge instruction employs many of the techniques typically used in sheltered content instruction. In order for students to gain competency, the instructor incorporates oral, aural, and visual ESL teaching strategies to teach the content. Students are asked to repeat information and answer as in a choral language activity, and the instructor solicits constant verbal feedback from students to check their comprehension of the content. Because of the teaching techniques involved, VESL bridges have historically been taught by ESL instructors who are also competent in the vocational skill, such as use of the computer and computer applications or typing. Ideally, vocational instructors should receive training in ESL teaching methodology, especially when teaching sheltered content sections in which LEP students are taught in a homogeous grouping.

VESL instruction arose out of the need for LEP adults to become employed. This targeted population has found it difficult to succeed in traditional vocational training programs and, moreover, to find actual employment because of limited language skills and cultural knowledge critical for job success. General VESL, occupational-cluster VESL, and occupation-specific VESL have all evolved as instructional models to answer the content-specific language needs of this LEP population.

In order to understand VESL as it relates to content-based language instruction, it is important to examine the delivery systems (the settings) through which VESL instruction is currently being offered. The four types of delivery systems include: (a) the ESL program approach, (b) the vocational program approach, (c) the work experience approach, and (d) the workplace approach.

In the *ESL program approach*, courses are offered in general VESL, occupational-cluster VESL, and occupation-specific VESL. These courses may or may not have direct links to vocational training programs, in the sense that they directly relate to the content covered in existing vocational courses. Their development is often a precursor to the implementation of the other approaches that will be discussed below and comes from the sheer numbers of requests by students to institute such courses because they cannot enter existing vocational programs or because they cannot find employment due to their limited language proficiency. General ESL classes may also include VESL units on employment, emphasizing work-related language and cultural competencies.

The *vocational program approach* usually prepares LEP students for entry-level positions in a particular field of work, such as office occupations. It is essential that along with vocational training, students receive VESL instruction of the general VESL, occupational-cluster, or occupation-specific type. For the most part, VESL in this setting usually focuses on language and cultural competencies specific to the occupation or occupational cluster. Instructional materials used in the VESL component are based on content in the designated occupation(s). The vocational instructor and VESL instructor work closely together so that there is continuity between their respective courses. Drawing from the materials and language used in the content class, the VESL instructor is, thus, able to develop language activities that facilitate the students' assimilation of the content as well as further develop their language skills. In addition, it is important for the vocational instructor to obtain feedback from the VESL instructor as to what adjustments must be made in teaching content and skills to LEP students, especially if the vocational course is taught as a sheltered class of all LEP students as opposed to a class combining both LEP and native learners.

The third delivery system for VESL is the *work experience approach*. In this approach, a student is placed at a work site for on-the-job experience, in addition to receiving VESL and vocational instruction in the classroom. As with the vocational program approach, general VESL, occupational-cluster VESL, or occupation-specific VESL are the types of VESL instruction implemented. However, what makes this approach unique is that VESL and vocational instruction can be directly applied to a real work situation and vice versa. Hence, VESL instructors can draw upon actual experiences on the job to structure classroom activities. Moreover, students are introduced to experiential language learning via their direct immersion into the working world. This kind of exposure allows them to build communicative language skills in a natural setting with native speakers as well as gain pertinent occupational and cultural knowledge.

The last approach which incorporates VESL instruction into its design is the *workplace approach*. This system of delivery provides VESL instruction (occupational-cluster or occupation-specific) to LEP employees already on the job. The purpose of VESL instruction in this setting is to facilitate the adjustment that LEP employees must make in an English-speaking work environment. The intended outcome is that they, in turn, will become more productive workers. (See the article by Henze & Katz in this volume for further discussion of issues in workplace literacy.)

VESL shares many of the same concerns as other content-based language instructional models. As far as staff development is concerned, there needs to be training for vocational instructors in how to better accommodate LEP students and for VESL instructors in strategies for working with vocational instructors on content course development. Content information and materials need to be gathered from both vocational instructors and industry to develop appropriate VESL curriculum and materials. VESL instructors, like other content-based language instructors, must insure that language instruction relates to language in the content course (i.e., vocational training or the workplace). A third concern is the need for administrators and industry (as in the examples of the work experience approach and workplace approach) to support VESL. Without such support, this type of instruction will never have the opportunity to develop. This development brings to mind the last concern—the financing for such programs. In this age of budget cuts and fiscal restraint, those of us in the field need to seek out creative opportunities for collaborative efforts between not only education and private industry, but also ESL and vocational programs within our own institutions.

The purpose of this article has been to examine VESL as an example of content-based language instruction. In explaining the types of VESL instruction, the intention has been to illustrate how language and content teaching mesh. It was also explained how VESL delivery systems can, in fact, supplement content-based language instruction. Finally, the common concerns that VESL holds with other models of content-based language instruction were discussed. It is hoped that readers of the Exchange have gained a better understanding of VESL and its individual approach to content-based instruction. ■

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CATESOL EXCHANGE

Is Whole Language Teaching Compatible With Content-Based Instruction?

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The answer to this question is, "Yes, absolutely!" A whole language approach is appropriate for teaching second language through content-based instruction for learners of all ages and in all subject areas. However, in order to understand how whole language supports content-based instruction, it is necessary to recognize two things: (a) Whole language is not limited to the teaching of reading and writing in lower elementary school grades, and (b) whole language is an approach to teaching and learning rather than a method or a series of materials. Teachers who use a whole language approach with second language learners realize the importance of teaching language through subject area content.

Roots of Whole Language

Whole language has its roots in the 18th-century writings of Rousseau and Pestalozzi, both of whom encouraged a holistic approach to all education. They believed that learning moves "from concrete, sensory experience" and should not be "drilled through rote memorization and corporal punishment" (Miller, 1988, p. 7). Shannon (1991) points out that the current whole language movement is based on two historical traditions: student-centered education and social reconstruction. In whole language classes, teachers teach "to and from the experiences of their students" (Olsen & Mullen, 1990), and they involve students in critical assessment of their social reality (Freeman & Freeman, 1991). These goals can best be accomplished in whole language classes that offer solid subject matter teaching.

Current whole language practices in the U.S. are the result of a grassroots movement of elementary teachers who were dissatisfied with being forced to teach reading from carefully structured materials such as basal readers and writing from grammar rules and language workbooks. The research in first language reading and writing by K. Goodman (1986), Y. Goodman (1985), Harste, Woodward, and Burke (1984), Smith (1971), and Graves (1983) and in second language literacy by Edelsky (1986) and Hudelson (1984) supports an approach that uses authentic reading materials, process writing, and organization around theme cycles (Edelsky, Altwerger, & Flores, 1991).

However, whole language is not limited to the teaching of literacy or the use of theme cycles in the lower grades. Whole language has also been successfully implemented in upper grade content classes, including classes with second language students (Freeman & Freeman, 1989a, 1989b). Content area teachers in the 1990s realize that their students are socially, economically, and ethnically diverse and that any one set of educational programs, textbooks, and workbooks cannot meet their needs. By 1995 there will be 1.5 million second language learners in California, and the challenge is to help these students succeed academically. ESL students need more than language drills or exercises designed to develop communicative competence. They do not have years to practice English before they acquire academic knowledge. They need to be offered an education that allows them to learn English through meaningful content so they can achieve academic and social success, and that is the goal of whole language teachers for their second language students.

The Questioning Lesson Plan: Whole Language Content Planning

Content-based instruction for second language students involves students in reading and writing in all subject areas. Content area teachers using whole language often organize around themes that come out of the students' own questions. These themes engage students in meaningful activities that move from whole to part, build on students' interests and backgrounds, serve their needs, provide opportunities for social interaction, and develop their skills in oral and written language as they use their first and second languages.

Clark (1988) has pointed out that curriculum should involve students "in some of the significant issues in life." He therefore encourages teachers to design their curriculum around "questions worth arguing about" (p. 29), suggesting questions for different age groups, such as: "How am I a member of many families?" (grades K-1); "What are the patterns that make communities work?" (grades 2-3); "How do humans and culture evolve and change?" (grades 4-5); "How does one live responsibly as a member of the global village?" (grades 6-8).

Sizer (1990) draws on the same idea by suggesting that organizing around *essential questions* leads to "engaging and effective curricula." In social studies, teachers responsible for teaching U.S. History might begin with broad questions especially appropriate in our diverse society, such as "Who is American? Who should stay? Who should stay out? Whose country is it anyway?" (p. 49). Sizer suggests larger questions for long-term planning and smaller, engaging questions to fit within the broader ones. For example, an essential question in botany might be, "What is life, growth, 'natural' development, and what factors most influence healthy development?" A smaller engaging question might be, "Do stems of germinating seedlings always grow upwards and the roots downwards?" (p. 50).

In all of the above examples, the goal is to make the curriculum student centered rather than teacher centered by involving students in answering relevant, real world questions that they help to raise. Whole language teachers often organize curriculum by using questions for day-by-day lesson planning. It is important to point out that in learner-centered classes, the questions come primarily from the students; however, as a member of the learning community, the teacher can also raise questions.

A method for planning consistent with whole language and suitable for content classes is the following *questioning lesson plan.*

This lesson plan format is designed to help teachers reconceptualize a curriculum as a series of questions generated by the students and the teacher as they explore topics together. This format also encourages teachers to keep in focus the broad concepts they are studying. It asks them to consider how each lesson might connect to broader themes. It also asks them to consider specific ways they can make the input comprehensible for their second language students. Planning lessons with this format is one way teachers can put whole language theory into practice with second language students. In addition, teachers have found that the whole language checklist, drawn from whole language principles (Freeman & Freeman, 1988), is useful to help them evaluate their content lessons.

Questioning Lesson Plan

1. **What is the question worth talking about?**
   Can the topic for this lesson be formulated in a question? What is the engaging smaller question that fits into your broader question for your overall theme?
2. **How does the question fit into your overall plan?**
   What is the broad question/theme that you and your students are exploring over time? How does the smaller, engaging question support the concepts you are working on with this broad question?
3. **How will you find out what the students already know about the question?**
   What are different ways your students might show what they already know about answering the question? You might brainstorm, do an experiment, interview someone, and so forth.
4. **What strategies will you use together to explore the question?**
   What are ways the question might be answered? You and your students might read, do an experiment, brainstorm, ask an expert, work out a problem together, and so forth. Ask the students if they have ideas about how to answer the question.
5. **What materials will you use together to explore the question?**
   List the resources, including people, that students might use to answer the question. Again, ask the students if they have ideas about this.
6. **What steps will you and the students take to explore the question?**
   In order to be sure that you are keeping in mind principles about learning, consult the *whole language checklist* below.
7. **How will you observe the students' learning?**
   What are some different ways to evaluate the process of your students' learning? Be sure to consider alternatives to traditional tests including group presentations, a group-produced book or newspaper, the results of an experiment, a drawing or schemata, and so forth.
8. **What specific techniques will you use to insure that the input is comprehensible for your second language students?**
   Have you planned to use sheltering techniques including visuals, gestures, group work, and first language support?

Whole Language Checklist

- Does the lesson move from the general to the specific? Are details presented within a general conceptual framework?
- Is there an attempt to draw on student background knowledge and interests? Are students given choices?
- Is the content meaningful? Does it serve a purpose for the learners?
- Do students work together cooperatively? Do students interact with one another or do they only react to the teacher?
- Do students have an opportunity to read and write as well as speak and listen during the lesson?
- Is there support for the students' first language and culture?
- Does the teacher demonstrate a belief that students will succeed?

Conclusion

The popular view that whole language means literacy instruction for elementary students is too narrow. Whole language extends to math, science, social studies, and all the content areas and to secondary as well as elementary education. Whole language means instruction that centers on students' needs and interests. Teachers applying whole language with second language students teach language through content because they recognize the importance of their students' developing not only language but also academic competence. Whole language without content instruction is not whole language. ■

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CATESOL EXCHANGE

How Are Content-Based Instructional Practices Reflected in Sheltered English?

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Every teacher has experienced both the thrill and satisfaction of finding exactly the right vehicle for conveying a difficult concept. When students are not able to grasp an idea through a conventional lecture, the teacher who is learner-centered seeks an alternative method to turn on the light of understanding. Whether with an illustrative example, an anecdotal digression, a graph, or chart, the teacher works to modify the delivery of the material to turn the concept into comprehensible input (Krashen, 1982). This act of modification is what *sheltering content material is all about.* In sheltered English, the teacher seeks to match the appropriate activity to both the language and cognitive level of the student. The thrill for the teacher occurs when the flicker of understanding lights the student's face.

> *"I felt like an astronaut in a rocket looking at the constellations."*
>
> *"... I learned a whole lot about outer space. Mr. Dorff was amazing. It was a very exciting experience."*

So say the students of a fourth grade sheltered science class at Edison Elementary School in Glendale, California. They had just spent an entire day and evening at school with Tom Dorff, a local astronomer, who had spent time sharing slides, telling stories, and giving students and their parents an opportunity to view the night sky through telescopes. The reactions of these students is what can be heard from the majority of second language learners in sheltered situations.

What did these students understand? They brought to this experience their schemata, a basic background knowledge of sky and stars, to grasp conceptually the thrust of Dorff's lecture. Through visual aids, he expanded their schema; they focused on the slides and viewed the visual images as they listened in the dark to an explanation of the constellations. Being in the dark and having their attention focused on the content rather than on language or themselves allowed them to relax and so lower their affective filters (Krashen, 1982). In this relaxed, but charged atmosphere, students were able to learn without worrying about the language barrier. They were excited and involved in the activities. Second language acquisition was taking place.

Prior to Tom Dorff's visit, teachers had prepared their ESL students with a variety of hands-on science activities: They made star charts and models, used flashlights to demonstrate a variety of astral phenomena, and measured and drew the sun and planets to scale on the playground. A star scavenger hunt was held, in which the students located and shared information through the use of reference materials. With colored paper, paints, and chalk the students also made artistic stellar representations. This lesson is but one example of sheltering content in a science class. Tom Dorff not only used outstanding visual techniques, he also created a context in which what was stated verbally reinforced content that had been previously taught. In creating both a relaxed atmosphere and a content-enriched context, the visiting astronomer provided the supportive learning environment which enables the ESL learner to be academically successful (Sasser & Winningham, 1991).

Glendale Unified School District has designed a program to meet the needs of limited English proficient (LEP) students in social studies and science. The Title VII Academic Excellence Program, now in its second year, provides support to students through a combination of materials and instructional strategies. There is an emphasis on the use of visuals and hands-on activities. Such strategies as cooperative learning and student pairing are built into the integrated curriculum. The program publishes the *SEA* (Sheltered English Approach) *News*, in which teachers are invited to share specific activities they have successfully implemented.

Other programs throughout California are adopting similar methods for helping LEP students study the content areas. Denise Evans, who works in the Emergency Immigrant Education Assistance Program (a federally funded program within the Los Angeles Unified School District), teaches her LEP students history and science with popcorn. Speaking slowly and articulately, she explains that the idea of popping corn was discovered by Native Americans; she has students duplicate this ancient procedure. After the students have completed the process and are contentedly eating popcorn, Evans draws them into a discussion of how the fusion of heat and moisture forces the popcorn to pop. Understanding has been enhanced by both demonstration and firsthand experience, two sheltered English strategies (Richard-Amato & Snow, 1992).

In the Los Angeles Unified School District, Sue Friedman, a teacher at Polytechnic High School, teaches aerobics in her health class. Even beginning ESL students are able to follow the teacher as she leads them through a variety of physical exercises. As they work out, they listen to American music and are thus provided with the language of our current pop heroes. They learn, through graphing, the importance of increasing heart rate. They are able to check their pulses and compare, on a visual chart, the increased efficiency of the heart muscle. They are also better able to comprehend how increased breathing speed positively affects the pulmonary system. In sweat pants, head bands, and aerobic shoes, students experience a sense of membership in the adoptive culture, a secondary benefit of the sheltered health lesson. After participating in the aerobics class, one student remarked, "Now I know why all those people at the park are running. Before, I thought they were going somewhere!"

These students have been served by sheltered instructional techniques used in content-based instruction. In looking at K-12 students being served today, we see an exploding population arriving in the United States—all needing to learn English, academic skills, and the adoptive culture. Although every teacher is not an ESL teacher, language minority students sitting in content classrooms force the realization that a certain degree of understanding of the second language acquisition process is critical to all teachers—language and content alike. The content teacher can use sheltered English techniques to successfully bridge the gap between ESL methodologies and content-based instruction. Borrowing from strategies once used exclusively in language classrooms, content teachers modify their modes of instruction to better serve the LEP student. The teacher maintains the level of content previously taught but modifies the language structures so that the language is not an obstruction to the student learning about a given topic. For each concept, the teacher searches for the best method of conveying the concept. Consider what the teachers described above did to teach content to students with limited English proficiency:

(a) created a relaxed and welcoming atmosphere;
(b) provided hands-on experiences with content material;
(c) used visual materials rather than printed text when possible;
(d) used charts and graphs;
(e) demonstrated procedures using realia
    (real objects and materials);
(f) set up group discussions for students to interact;
(g) spoke more slowly;
(h) taught the same concept in a variety of modes;
(i) prepared students by expanding background knowledge; and
(j) contextualized concepts.

These classroom modifications immediately serve the language minority student but are merely a beginning list. There are an infinite number of techniques for making content comprehensible. (See Richard-Amato and Snow, 1992).

In addition, content lessons that include sheltered English techniques—visuals, realia, and interactive strategies—teach a host of cultural concepts that rarely surface in the traditional textbook-reading scenario. And going beyond routine classroom procedures to reach out to language minority students sends a message to these students that they count as learners. Often, students respond with greater motivation.

Making content and language more accessible to language minority students requires a stimulating cognitive and affective environment. Sheltering content lessons is not an easier way of teaching; it demands creative thinking and careful planning. But the results are gratifying. One of the benefits sheltered English has brought about is a lively dialogue among teachers seeking to share approaches that have worked. LEP students benefit from what these teachers share as they continue to develop a store of sheltered content lessons to meet the needs of their particular learning group. In California, teachers are busy creating a wide array of inventive activities that allow students to comprehend high-level content in a rich learning environment. ■

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CATESOL EXCHANGE

What Are the Benefits of Cooperative Learning in Content-Based Instruction?

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In a cooperative learning classroom a teacher can deliver powerful subject area content while effectively accommodating the diverse language skills, academic knowledge, and cultural backgrounds that today's students bring to the classroom. There is a considerable body of research (Johnson & Johnson, 1974; Johnson, Johnson, & Maruyama, 1983; Kagan, 1986; Slavin, 1983) showing that cooperative learning classrooms not only accommodate but benefit from a mix of student needs, talents, and learning styles. Extensive research (De Vries & Slavin, 1978; Slavin, 1983) clearly shows the effectiveness of cooperative structures in raising students' scores on standardized tests of basic skills. Several major studies (Kagan, 1986; Slavin, 1977, 1983) which examined student achievement gains on standardized basic skills tests in cooperative and in conventional classrooms found that students in cooperative classrooms gained more than their counterparts in conventional classrooms. In addition to academic achievement, cooperative learning has proven effective in prosocial development and race relations (Kagan, 1987).

Cooperative learning establishes an environment in which students gain an understanding of content as well as prepare to interact in a social and economic world characterized by rapid change. Slavin (1978) provides steps to implement instruction focusing on the achievement of K-12 academically and racially diverse students. Johnson and Johnson (1975, 1984) developed cooperative learning methods that focus students on the collaborative and social skills required for effective group work. Their work provides the general principles and procedures of a cooperative learning classroom. Kagan's (1987) practical classroom application of cooperative learning structures is extensive and provides an excellent resource for planning content area instruction. All of the above studies provide strong evidence of the effectiveness of cooperative learning. The question posed, however, is to what degree this learning tool can benefit content-based instruction.

Students Benefit

Students in the cooperative learning classroom interact more than in a conventional classroom. The teacher selects and combines structures that involve students in a cooperative learning environment: (a) peer tutoring in which teammates help one another to learn specific subject matter; (b) individual accountability, in which each team member is given responsibility for mastering a portion of a learning unit and later teaching the assigned information to teammates; (c) cooperative projects in which students collaborate to produce a product such as a class book, an oral presentation, an art work, or video production; and (d) learning experiences in which students and teacher assess learning goals—the ability to speak and write clearly about the content area, gather information, use it effectively to solve problems, and analyze and think logically about complex situations.

Teachers find that cooperative learning enables students to work, teach, and learn together. They use cooperative learning structures like *color-coded coop cards*, *numbered heads together*, or *student teams achievement division (STAD)* to provide immediate and frequent tangible and social feedback to students regarding their improvement. *Color-coded coop cards*, which emphasize peer tutoring, are designed to facilitate mastery of academic content (Kagan, 1987). The specific steps to using the cards include a pretest to identify information that is known or unknown to the student, e.g., vocabulary words, the multiplication tables, spelling, scientific terms, or factual historical information. The information is written on cards which students use as study cards when later working in dyads using well-established principles of learning, including frequent positive feedback following repeated rounds.

Jigsaw structures involve students in five- to six-member home groups that are given a unique piece of information on a topic the whole class is studying. Within jigsaw and its modifications (Aronson, Blaney, Stephan, Sikes, & Snapp, 1978; Slavin, 1977), the task is structured to make individuals accountable for their own learning gains, as well as assist team members on their mastery of content. For example, a teacher planning a science lesson might jigsaw the curriculum materials (four to six chapters covering the circulatory, glandular, nervous, etc. systems of the body) and assign each member of a home team one chapter. Team members then meet in an "expert" group composed of other students with the same topic to read and discuss. They master the material and decide how they will teach members of their home group the information. The class may then take a test to check for comprehension of the areas of expertise presented.

The *learning together* method (Johnson & Johnson, 1975, 1984) also structures learning so the contributions from each member must be respected for the group to reach its objectives. In the cooperative learning methods developed by Johnson and Johnson, students often receive grades based on their group's performance. Students using cooperative structures like learning together and jigsaw learn to value the contribution of each of the members of the group recognizing that together they form an effective educational community.

Teachers Benefit

Teachers find cooperative structures like the *group investigation model* an effective means to incorporate both academic content and social skills. In essence, students in group investigation progress through consecutive learning stages (Sharan & Sharan, 1976; Sharan, Hare, Hertz-Lazarowitz, & Webb, 1980). Students first identify a research topic of interest and organize the classroom into a group of research groups. Student members of research groups take substantial reponsibility for deciding what they will learn, how they will organize the learning task, and how they will communicate with their classmates what they have learned. The class and the teacher are involved in evaluating group products and assessing the learning experience.

Students can be led through their educational experience in a way that promotes greater understanding of content and fosters the transfer of learning. There are various ways to achieve this: The teacher may ask students to consider how they did in accomplishing the academic assignment; students may share their thoughts with peers in their small group or with the class as a whole; or students may reflect on their learning experience by writing journals. Questions that assist students in evaluating and processing their learning experience (Moss, 1991) may be incorporated throughout each phase of the cooperative lesson: first, in experiencing new information or skills; next, in sharing perceptions, interpreting, generalizing, applying, and finally, extending the application by making it a part of their personal lives. For example, questions appropriate when new information is introduced include: If you could guess the answer, what would you say? What do you need to know to ...? As students later work toward generalizing from the specific content they have studied and knowledge they have gained about themselves or their groups, they might process: What did we learn/relearn/discover? Through processing their own learning students gain a sense of control over and participation in events (Dishon & O'Leary, 1984).

School Community Benefits

Cooperative learning establishes an effective school community, assists teachers in providing instruction that builds the student's command of language, and facilitates the use of language as a vehicle to learn content. Cultural and linguistic diversity, rather than being perceived as a learning handicap or deficiency, is recognized as a positive element from which student groups profit. Students explicitly recognize the importance of culture as instruction requires them to draw on their background knowledge to interpret the information presented in subject matter lessons. Cooperative structures focusing on peer tutoring very efficiently increase the amount of comprehensible input, directly fostering increases in students' language mastery and understanding of subject matter.

Conclusion

The advantages of using cooperative learning structures for effective content area instruction are shown in the benefits gained by the students, the teacher, and the school community. The research suggests that when the learning process and the instructional system emphasize cooperative group achievement, the values of the community shift and all students, including students from traditionally under-achieving groups, get involved in school, participate in the learning process, and succeed according to criteria established by the school. There is extensive research showing that cooperative learning methods contribute "significantly to student achievement—to an equal extent in both elementary and secondary schools; in urban, suburban, and rural schools; and in diverse subject matter areas" (Slavin, 1981, p. 659). ■

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The CATESOL Journal

CATESOL EXCHANGE

What Is the Role of Teaching Culture in Content-Based Instruction?

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Culture lessons in most ESL classrooms, from preschool through college or adult level are, in principle, pretty much the same. We share and celebrate the holidays, food, and music of our students' various native cultures. We also give brief lessons on American holidays as they come up: a unit on the pilgrims in November, some Christmas carols (and possibly a chorus of "Dreydl, Dreydl, Dreydl") in December, and valentines in February. All of this is done because most of us are committed to the notion that "language cannot be taught apart from culture" and that "to learn a language is to learn a culture." However, most of us would be hard pressed to actually explain let alone defend either statement.

This notion of *culture* which is often reflected in classroom lessons is undoubtedly interesting and helpful to newcomers. Because of it we help orient students with procedural information and probably make them feel more comfortable in an alien culture because we acknowledge their own. We would like to argue, however, that this aspect of culture needs less attention than it currently enjoys because it is not particularly problematic. Holidays and music may be the focus of curiosity and interest, but they seldom become the source of misunderstanding, at least of the sort that can systematically distort the dynamics of a classroom. There is, however, another aspect of culture—another level, if you will—which is very problematic and potentially quite disruptive to the multicultural classroom. This aspect of culture is less visible, and, as a result, less intelligible to teacher and student alike. Following the work of early 20th-century phenomenologists and of more recent sociologists and sociolinguists such as Goffman (1959, 1963), Garfinkel (1967), and Ochs (1988), we would like to invite ESL teachers to rethink their definitions of culture in light of the evidence that culture is a far more powerful and potentially disruptive force than most of us imagine. Moreover, we would like to argue that culture, in this sense, deserves consideration as content in any discussion of content-based instruction.

The aspect of culture which interests us most is not obvious differences in food, music, and dress, but rather the mundane, the ordinary, the everyday stuff of which reality, especially social reality, is made. It is that which "everyone knows" or which is common sense. It is never (or rarely) up for question, but it differs, sometimes dramatically, from one cultural group to another. It is part of the background of our lives, the setting, the given. This aspect of culture is very much like a pair of contact lenses. That is, we look through it, we experience reality in terms of it, but we do not see it, except under the most unusual conditions. This transparent aspect of culture, however, is vitally important because it is the shared understanding inherent in our daily practices that determines how we slice up, organize, experience and (perhaps) constitute reality. It determines what we experience in life. As a result, people from various cultures may experience the same situation in markedly different ways depending on how, when, and by whom they have been enculturated.

That people experience or constitute reality in different ways and that they cannot see the lenses through which they look is not in and of itself particularly alarming or problematic for the multicultural classroom. However, according to Garfinkel (1967) there is more to this aspect of culture than its near invisibility, and we think this is very important: There is evidence that this aspect or level of culture also has a moral status. That is, cultural breaches are treated as if they were moral breaches. Our reactions to such cultural breaches are the same as they might be to someone who lies to us—but when someone lies, we know what is wrong. When someone breaches a cultural expectation of the sort we are talking about, however, we do not see what is being breached (because it is transparent to our daily activity), yet we may feel outraged—often in staggering disproportion to the gravity of the transgression committed.

A good example of this might be the case of a student "cheating" on an exam. In some cultures, cheating is viewed positively, as a sign that one is willing to share and is not so arrogant as to refuse help from others. Students who grow up in societies with such an interpretation are faced with generations of cheating in which their teachers, and their teachers' teachers before them assisted each other on exams, often in clever and ingenious ways. Now imagine these same students at an American university. When they put these same deeply ingrained strategies to work in a new environment, their professors react quite differently. Even when teachers know that such behavior is acceptable in the students' native country, they still react emotionally. Often the response involves moral justification: "People just shouldn't do that! It isn't right!"

Plagiarism is another example of a potential cultural misunderstanding. In some countries, using the words of others is considered good scholarship, a way to demonstrate that one knows the words of authorities (Gadda, 1991). In American schools, though, such an act flies in the face of our own deeply embedded understanding of what constitutes acceptable scholarly behavior. When students plagiarize, teachers feel personally insulted and betrayed.

These two examples involve acts that, from a western point of view, are unambiguously immoral. For this reason they can be misleading because the level of culture to which we hope to draw attention is really much broader than issues such as plagiarism and cheating. It involves those acts which may be unconsciously construed as immoral, even though the standards by which the interpretations are made are not visible to the interpreters. These cultural differences might include how close or far to stand from those with whom one is speaking, what is bad breath or offensive body odor, what is the proper way to look at the person with whom one is talking (such as the situation in which a student stares blankly at the teacher even though he or she understands), or what counts as an interruption or rude behavior during class (such as sharpening a pencil during a teacher-directed portion of the lesson or asking fellow students for confirmation of teacher instructions which have just been given orally and written on the board). The problem is that not only do these cultural differences disrupt the teacher-student relationship per se, (for affective factors are unarguably important) but they distort the discursive dynamics of a classroom, that is, all the factors that go with language and how it is used. Teachers and students, from elementary school through university level, can find themselves exasperated, frustrated, and offended but unable to say exactly why, and therefore unable to remedy the situation.

Let us now return to the focus of this volume: content-based instruction. As is well known, the basic premise of content-based instruction for second language learners is that students will learn the target language better and more efficiently if they are taught not the language directly but other subjects in the language. We would like to argue that culture, particularly its moral status and its invisibility, is a critical topic which should be addressed in content-based teaching.

Following the *into-through-and-beyond model* (see, for example, Brinton, Goodwin, & Ranks, 1991) a content-based unit on culture for any level might begin with the obvious, extreme differences in food, dress, language, and custom and then move to the aspect of culture that isn't so obvious but much more problematic.

Elementary School

For elementary school children, a good beginning into-activity might be bringing in pictures from *National Geographic*, *The Smithsonian*, or any other source that has attractive color photos of people from other cultures. As a prereading activity, students could discuss different cultural customs that they see in the pictures and their reactions to them. Follow-up questions could include what language the people in the pictures might speak and whether the students have had any experience with languages other than the ones represented in the classroom.[1] The through-phase of the cultural lesson could be centered around any number of children's multicultural texts such as *I Hate English!* (1989) by Ellen Levine or student-generated and illustrated language experience texts about customs, holidays, food, and language from students' native countries.

Finally, the beyond-activity could exploit a natural ability of children this age. Elementary students can (and spontaneously do) imagine "other places" where "up is down and people think differently, and there are no doors on houses and where every home has 17 television sets because the sets usually break, but there are no repairmen."[2] This kind of play helps students to think about the possibility and acceptability of other points of view. Students can imagine other worlds, write descriptions of them, and draw pictures of them. They can share their creations with the class. They can assume the role of someone from the imaginary place they have created, make costumes, and answer questions in character from the teacher and class about their "home." Other students can play the parts of reporters and interview the aliens. The teacher can set the tone and pace of the interviews if necessary, move from descriptive kinds of questions to more subjective questions about feelings, ask about classroom rules, procedures, and tasks: "Do children go to school in your world? If not, how do they learn? If they do go to school, what is it like? Is it very different from here? Does this classroom seem strange to you? Why? Do you have brothers and sisters? How old are they? Do you miss your friends? What are their names? What do they like to do? Do you think they would like it here? Do you like it here? Why or why not?" The final task might include a written summary of the interview and possibly even a class newspaper with interviews and news from other worlds. The idea is that young thinkers get used to the idea that there are deep cultural differences and that these differences seem perfectly normal and commonplace (invisible) for someone who is a part of that group.

High School Students

A very evocative and exciting series of cultural lessons for older students could be organized around an adaptation of *Ways With Words* (1983) or the article "What No Bed Time Story Means" (1986). In these studies, Stanford anthropologist Shirley Brice Heath describes three cultures within the United States with respect to language socialization and literacy and the extent to which this socialization matches the expectations held by schools. An excellent high school into-activity for this text can be based on an excerpt from Clyde

Kluckhohn's (1949) "Mirror for Man", in which the author defines what anthropologists mean by culture and explains culture's influence on how people think, feel, and behave.

The activity starts out with pictures from *National Geographic* (as described above) and then moves to group clustering activities. The first task is to brainstorm on the function of culture and cluster the ideas elicited on the blackboard. The ensuing discussion is eventually led to the significance of items mentioned by more than one group. The class is divided into groups again to repeat the clustering activity, this time using information about a culture which is assigned to them. Following the group clustering activity, groups present their cluster to the class, which decides on the accuracy of information, the existence of stereotypes, and the overlaps between cultures. Class discussion also centers on which characteristics are important or superficial. The final step in this stage is to lead the class to a consensus regarding the benefits of understanding another culture and what potential problems might exist between cultures. Teachers should encourage students to explore how culture can be used to define an individual and if there are any dangers in allowing a culture to speak for an individual.

To help students work through the Kluckhohn reading, they are divided into jigsaw groups, each of which is then assigned a portion of the reading. Group members become experts on their portion of the text. The groups are then reconfigured, with one expert in each group. In these reconfigured groups students construct a complete definition of culture, drawing on the specialized knowledge of each of the experts in their group. This activity can be followed up with other through-activities, including T-graph exercises in which specific examples are taken from the text (e.g., "Chinese dislike milk and milk products") and written in the left-hand portion of the diagram; the generalizations which these examples illustrate (e.g., "Likes and dislikes for food are learned cultural behavior") are written in the right-hand portion of the diagram. A beyond-activity in this unit might be an adaptation of one of UCLA sociologist Harold Garfinkel's exercises. Students can assume the role of a stranger—or even of an alien. In this role they observe and record the everyday academic and social behaviors of their multicultural peers (including native English-speakers) and the reactions of others. Finally they can compare what they see with their own background behaviors. They can keep journals, produce a group report or paper, or put on a television show in which their subjects are interviewed or observed in their natural settings.

University Students

Older students might benefit from a more direct approach. The well-known sociologist, Erving Goffman (1959, 1963) explored some of those aspects of culture that are invisible to us by studying settings in which cultural norms did not apply, such as mental institutions. Garfinkel sent out students to purposely breach cultural agreements to illustrate various aspects of culture, including its invisibility and moral status. Lessons organized around portions of these readings and sources cited therein could be a rich source of cultural insight for older students. Like their younger counterparts, they could become investigators themselves in a beyond-activity, observing and describing the multicultural environment of their own classrooms, schools, and neighborhoods. At this level, students could even participate in adaptations of some of Garfinkel's breaching exercises as a way of making what is normally invisible, visible. Students could make a point of standing closer (or further away) than feels acceptable while talking with other students, teachers, parents, and so forth. Afterwards they should explain the experiment to their subjects and note their own responses to the experiment and the reactions of their interlocutors to both the experiment and its explanation. Such observations can be very revealing to those who have not previously thought about the hidden influences of social and linguistic practices. Variations would include having students speak too loudly or too softly, interrupt or avoid responding appropriately, digress or give only short, direct responses, begin each statement with a brief narrative that winds slowly into the main point, and so forth. Writing up these exercises and follow-up discussions regarding how students felt during the experiments as well as open discussion about cheating, interrupting instructors, or people who stand too close (and what *too close* means) would contribute to the students' developing understanding of how cultural differences can distort speech situations, especially between teacher and student. Needless to say, these activities also provide an engaging occasion for the practice of language. (See also Devenney, 1991 for a description of an *observe-and-record approach* used in conjunction with a language class.)

There is, of course, more to be said about the kind of course being proposed here. The main point is to demonstrate that many aspects of culture are invisible to its practitioners, and that breaches of this aspect of culture pack a wallop. Learning these two simple points would empower both students and teachers. Breaches of the sort we have described were relatively unusual in American schools some years ago because they simply didn't arise. Most teachers and students were from the same background: mainstream, middle class.[3] This is no longer the case, and we feel that a knowledge of culture, what it is, and how it is reflected in our own group and in the various groups of our students is essential if we are to truly promote rather than merely tolerate diversity. ■

Footnotes

1. We are grateful to Donna Brinton and the members of the 1989 Teaching Analytical Reading and Writing Program for sharing this and several of the other teaching ideas mentioned in this article.

2. This is part of an actual story recently told to us by a 7-year-old.

3. As Heath (1986) points out, "Terms such as *mainstream* and *middle-class* are frequently used in both popular and scholarly writings without careful definition. In general, the literature characterizes this group as school-oriented, aspiring toward upward mobility through formal institutions, and providing enculturation that positively values routines of promptness, linearity (in habits ranging from furniture arrangement to entrance into a movie theater), and evaluative and judgmental responses to behaviors that deviate from their norms..." (p. 123).

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The CATESOL Journal

CATESOL EXCHANGE

How Can We Encourage Active Learning Strategies in Content-Based Second Language Instruction?

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As educators of language minority students, we know that schooling does far more than teach academic subject matter. It can dramatically shape students' world views, mold their images of themselves and their communities, and position them in society. Paulo Freire (1973) maintains that a principle purpose of education should be to encourage learners to believe in themselves and convince them that they have valued knowledge and experiences. I believe that second language instruction should go even further and equip students with active learning strategies which will enable them to demonstrate capably their special expertise and provide access to new knowledge. Unfortunately, school often does just the opposite, making language minority students question the existence or value of their knowlege and skills, which in turn contributes to a poor self-image and academic performance.

As an example, a high school student with limited English proficiency (LEP) who has mastered the new vocabulary and concepts in a lesson and studied concientiously may perform poorly on a test because she lacks the academic language to interpret correctly the test directions. If presented with the essay question in a U.S. history class, "Trace the early waves of immigration to the U.S.," she is apt to respond to the phrase "early immigration," completely disregarding the key direction word *trace* and write whatever she can recollect from the unit, with no clear focus or organization.

Essay questions are generally graded on two criteria: what the writer says and how the writer says it. It is not enough, then, for a student to include the correct information in a series of connected sentences. The information must be presented in a logical, organized way—reflecting the task demands of the particular direction words—and must demonstrate the writer's understanding of the subject. Because she lacks the strategy for providing the called-for chronological description, she will most likely receive a grade which doesn't reflect her true understanding of the subject matter.

In order to perform well on standardized and teacher-constructed tests, LEP students need to be familiar with varied test formats and have the language proficiency to interpret accurately a wide range of test directions and questions. They need strategies to effectively answer both objective (e.g., true/false, multiple choice) and subjective (e.g., essay, short answer) test questions.

But where in grades 6 through 12 do LEP students actually have the opportunity to develop crucial academic competencies such as test taking, lecture note taking, or textbook reading and studying—competencies which will enable them to advance successfully through the core curricula and thus have an equal opportunity to attend college?

The sheltered English class would seem the logical place for LEP students to begin this developmental process. Students whose English is newly emerging should properly be placed in content courses taught in their primary language. At the level of intermediate fluency in English students have acquired the receptive and productive skills which allow them to negotiate both spoken and contextual meanings in English. They are then ideally suited for the sheltered classroom and for the task demands of academic skill building in English.

An examination of the principles and practices underlying sheltered English instruction makes it clear why the sheltered classroom is potentially the ideal place to introduce academic skill building and active learning strategies. In sheltered English classes, content-area teachers employ principles of successful ESL instruction which have been greatly influenced by research on second language acquisition. The work of Jim Cummins (1981) has had a decisive impact on methodology by helping us see the distinction between language used for social and academic purposes. Social language (*basic interpersonal communication skills* or *BICS*) enables students to participate in everyday informal communicative exchanges. It is the language students use among themselves on the school playground and in the classroom. More critical to success in secondary and postsecondary schools, however, is academic language (*cognitive academic language proficiency* or *CALP*), which enables students to deal with cognitively demanding language tasks at school: formal lectures; textbooks in social science, science, and mainstream English classes; and both teacher-constructed and standardized tests.

One of the keys to mastery of more cognitively demanding academic material is *comprehensible input* (Krashen, 1985)—in other words, new language and concepts easily understood by the learner. Comprehensibility sets the stage for learning and academic mastery. After planning topically focused lessons that integrate language skills, teachers then provide contextual clues that are embedded in content with realia, visuals, models, and manipulatives. They also enhance comprehensibility for LEP students through the use of graphic organizers such as Venn diagrams, charts, and semantic maps. Sheltered

English methodology reflects additional principles of successful second language acquisition and ESL instruction, which as described by Curtain (1986), include focusing on meaning rather than on form, avoiding excessive error correction, providing students with simplified English to increase comprehensibility of concepts and language, and involving students in meaningful interaction. Richard-Amato and Snow (1992) emphasize the distinction between language skills and cognitive skills and suggest that in sheltered classes instructors take into careful consideration the linguistic demands of their content area and also guide their students in developing the learning strategies necessary for mastering content material.

From this composite description of the methodology employed in sheltered English classes (see also Glaudini Rosen in this volume for additional strategies), it seems reasonable to expect that ESL students are here acquiring the language and concepts they need to advance in core curricula as well as the active learning and study skills they need to succeed in mainstream classes. Frequently, however, in sheltered classes, the focus is placed on providing comprehensible input in the form of vocabulary and concept development to increase ESL learners' ability to understand the particular lesson of the day, not on the development of active learning processes which these students can carry with them beyond the sheltered classroom.

Sheltered instruction has been criticized for watering down the curriculum, though skilled instructors in sheltered classes know that by facilitating engagement and interaction with academic concepts, they enrich and contextualize the curriculum. Nonetheless, we must examine the extent to which we inadvertently function as institutional "gatekeepers" (Erickson & Shultz, 1982), denying our students social mobility within the school system, when we spend the majority of class time making our lessons more accessible for our students without allocating sufficient time for the development of both the CALP and the active learning processes vital to completion of more complex academic reading and writing assignments or examinations. Our students may very well emerge from our sheltered U.S. history lesson with a deeper understanding of the early waves of immigration to the U.S.; however, they may be no better equipped to tackle the next textbook chapter on their own, take effective lecture notes, prepare for an upcoming exam, or competently answer an essay question.

As advocates of educational equity for language minority students and as agents of social change, we must seek and share practices which enable and extend our students' voices. We cannot wait until our students are ready to enter mainstream classes to develop academic survival skills; in fact, we cannot even safely assume that their mainstream instructors are able or willing to assume any responsibility for this critical skill development. The leadership role lies with the instructors who best understand the learning needs and styles of language minority students. We must therefore infuse our ESL and sheltered English classes with multiple opportunities for our students to acquire a wide range of CALP and to better understand how to learn in and across various disciplines.

We can do this by critically examining the content areas for which we are preparing our ESL students. After identifying key academic competencies for the individual content areas, we must thoughtfully analyze the steps involved in the development of each skill. We should take our students carefully through the steps involved in each skill and provide them with regular, structured classroom opportunities to practice, receive feedback, and ultimately master these skills.

As an illustration, in workshops which I conduct with secondary and college content area faculty, I introduce a process-oriented approach which enables LEP students to develop the vocabulary and active learning strategies necessary to accurately read and respond to short-answer and essay test questions.

A first step in developing students' test-taking competencies is to identify high frequency direction words (i.e., those most commonly used in specific content areas and/or used widely across disciplines). Content area faculty I have worked with generally suggest the following key direction words: analyze, compare, contrast, define, describe, discuss, explain, evaluate, illustrate, justify, state, summarize. The next step is to familiarize students with these terms. However, simply providing LEP students with an extensive list of direction words and their definitions does little to build their test-taking competencies and delivers the message that academic skills will be difficult if not impossible to master.

A more effective way to help LEP students better internalize the distinct meanings of direction words is to provide them with a limited list of high frequency direction words and their definitions, then provide multiple opportunities for them to complete short tasks using these different words to write about topics familiar to them. If students are allowed to write about topics which are grounded in their lives and interests, the focus can be placed on development of test-taking CALP and strategies rather than on a struggle to generate adequate support for the topic. Topics which I have used very successfully with high school LEP students include: "My Job," "My Hobby," "My Study Place," "My Best Friend," "My Favorite Class," and "An Important Decision." For the initial series of writing activities, I assign the topic "My Study Place" after a lively class discussion of criteria for an effective study environment. Students find it to be an easy and accessible topic, one that lends itself to graphic "showing" and that can be discussed in distinctly different ways.

The students then write four paragraphs about their most frequent study place, selecting from these direction words: define, describe, analyze, contrast, compare, evaluate, justify. After completing these short paragraphs, the students exchange papers and try to identify which four direction words their partner has selected, justifying their decisions with clear evidence from the paragraphs. I teach them how to recognize the signals for different paragraph types; for example, a comparison can be identified by paragraph signals such as *similarly* and *in comparison*. These writing samples then provide the instructor with a wealth of material for additional activities, all of which further help the students internalize the distinct meanings of the direction words and develop their analytical reading ability. I use the overhead projector to show a variety of writing samples from the batch to the entire class. I first ask the students to identify response types and to justify their decisions. To do so, I show them a range of the student writing samples, then place them in groups to collaborate on deciding what type of directions the writer must have received. I also ask them to analyze varied responses to specific directions to determine whether the writers have responded appropriately. For example, I might show them three paragraphs in which the writers were asked to evaluate their usual study place, then ask the class to specify what made the individual responses successful or unsuccessful written evaluations.

Another way to regularly recycle test direction words is by substituting them for the simplified terms and tasks used predominantly in sheltered materials. In an examination of the task demands in three sheltered U.S. history texts, I found that all too frequently students are merely asked to list, tell, or answer a *What is/are*-question, when with adequate preparation, they can easily be asked to define, compare, analyze, or describe. A student with limited English proficiency is capable of mastering CALP as vital to academic achievement as the terms used prevalently on standardized and mainstream instructor-constructed exams. We can facilitate this critical language development by introducing new direction words in manageable doses, one or two at a time, and refraining from adding any new direction terms before the students demonstrate genuine mastery of their existing lexicon of test terminology. By introducing a few new direction words at a time, then regularly recycling these directions in homework assignments and classroom activities, students in no time can effectively respond to the distinct task demands. They also can be challenged to engage in integrated language arts activities which are cognitively demanding and which enhance critical thinking skills.

Essay test-taking strategies are only part of the vital repertoire of active learning and study strategies our language minority students must develop to succeed across the curriculum, a repertoire which also includes lecture note-taking strategies, textbook reading and study strategies, and vocabulary expansion strategies.

Many educational researchers and scholars agree that the focus of both equality and excellence in education is maximum development of the personal talents of all students. By merely providing our LEP students with enough comprehensible input to have access to our lessons, we do not sufficiently develop their talents. When language minority students also learn how to learn across the disciplines, they can have access to quality knowledge without our facilitation. We should, therefore, strive to first provide our students with "input + 1" then advance to "sheltered English + 1." That is, we can continue to use our ESL methodology to enrich and contextualize the content area curriculum while we also manageably and steadily build active student strategies. With this language development and vital academic skill building, language minority students can see that they have a genuine chance, that they are indeed prepared to succeed in higher education. ■

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The CATESOL Journal

CATESOL EXCHANGE

How Can Thematic ESL Units Be Used In the Elementary Classroom?

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Many California elementary school teachers have the difficult task of juggling different language groups and ESL levels in their classrooms. This article will show how thematic ESL units can be an ideal way to interest and motivate diverse children and can give them varied opportunities to use language. When planning thematic units for classes made up of ESL children or ESL students integrated with native speakers of English, teachers need to give special consideration to choosing suitable themes and language arts methods. I will concentrate on unit planning by presenting example activities and discussing special methodological considerations for classrooms of diverse students.

Thematic (or theme-based or content-based) units in the elementary school are not new. There have always been good teachers who realize the value of tying together language arts, social studies, music, art—and perhaps science and math—in a unit about the ancient Greeks or the founding of the California missions. In 1976 Moffett and Wagner wrote,

> A classroom has to be a cornucopia of opportunities so that no matter which way he looks a student can see interesting connections among things, words, ideas, and people. ... The main thing is to keep practicing language with involved care. So saturating the learner with language reinforces the strategy of going for volume and variety.
>
> A group fascinated by animals can track them for weeks with great interest across folk tales, fables, true memoirs, poems, ... articles, statistics, charts and graphs and maps, photos, animal card games, films, and so on. At the same time they can interweave play-acting of animals, observing and note taking, journals, keeping pets, telling and writing animal

> stories and fables, photographing and drawing and captioning, discussing arithmetical calculation, rehearsed reading of animal stories, and so on. (p. 41)

Today the language experience (Dixon & Nessel, 1983) and whole language (Goodman, 1986) approaches can be guiding principles for thematic units. In the activities which follow, we will see how thematic units have the same benefits for ESL learners as for native speakers of English.

Instruction through thematic units should include clear, appealing content that is relevant to students and clarified through several means: pictures, objects, books, films, visiting speakers, field trips, writing activities, and so forth. Language is used in several fields and across several modalities, all related to the same interesting theme. In other words, thematic units are likely to include comprehensible input (Krashen, 1981) or sheltered English (Richard-Amato & Snow, 1992; Sasser & Winningham, 1991) and to teach ESL through the natural approach (Krashen & Terrell, 1983). Thematic units, also called content-based teaching units (Irujo, 1990), teach language along with content, thus producing "a sum greater than its parts" (Graham & Beardsley, 1986).

To plan a unit, most teachers start out by thinking of a theme that interests their students. Some examples are dinosaurs, food, apples, vehicles in the city, earthworms, Asia, Peter Rabbit, the five senses, and immigration. Sometimes a book or movie is the stimulus that leads to the theme; sometimes a teacher comes up with a theme as a result of conversations with students or by looking at their journals, free writing, or free drawing. The teacher needs to be enthusiastic about the theme herself and skilled at projecting this enthusiasm to draw in some of the less interested students.

Once the theme is settled on, the teacher can gather related resources that are already in the classroom (basals, trade books, art materials, etc.) and other resources from stores, businesses, the zoo, museums, libraries, and so forth. The teacher may then consider how students will be grouped during the thematic units. For whole class activities, the teacher will need to use sheltered English, including visuals and things to touch and do. For instance, Flynn (1991), in a unit on Peter Rabbit, had the children discuss the similarities and differences of a Peter Rabbit stuffed animal and a real rabbit. In Gibson's (1991) unit, "How We Travel in the City," a visitor gave a demonstration on bicycle repair and maintenance.

For activities that are focused on accuracy, students can work in equal-proficiency groups. For example, in "How We Travel in the City," the advanced ESL children and the native English-speakers worked on research projects together. One project was about Metro Rail (public transportation) in Los Angeles. In a second grade unit on rabbits (Crice, 1991) the children first listened to Beatrix Potter's

(1989) *The Tale of Peter Rabbit* and then broke up into three equal-proficiency groups. In the first group, the advanced ESL children and native speakers of English created sentences using assigned vocabulary. The intermediate children retold the story with the teacher and used sentence strips (for details about sentence strip activities, see Dixon & Nessel, 1983). The beginning group retold the story using a flannel board and discussed pictures for some of the vocabulary.

Mixed-proficiency groups are ideal for fluency-based activities (Bell, 1988). In a kindergarten and first grade unit (Frankel-Winkler, 1991) mixed groups of children visited learning centers together and talked about their experiences. For example, at one center the children tasted sugar and salt, as well as other items that looked the same. In a third grade unit on cooking, Allen (1991) had mixed groups of third graders make collages and choose one child to report on the collage to the whole class.

Along with considering ways of grouping the children, the teacher needs to incorporate a variety of the newer language arts aproaches—whole language, the language experience approach and process writing—into the unit. Rich's (1990) fourth grade unit on apples illustrates a whole language approach. She planned two hours per day for three whole language activities: a *theme experience*, a *literature activity*, and *interpretive activities* (terms from Heald-Taylor, 1989). One day, in the theme experience, (or, hands-on experience with the theme of the unit) the children made applesauce. In the literature activity, the children did a choral reading about Johnny Appleseed. They then divided into equal-proficiency groups for interpretive activities. The advanced group compared two versions of the Johnny Appleseed story. The intermediate group completed sentences relating to the story, and the beginning group dictated their own stories about Johnny Appleseed. (For a more detailed discussion of whole language teaching as it relates to content-based instruction, see Freeman & Freeman, this volume.)

The language experience approach, actually one component of the whole language approach, can also be used profitably in ESL thematic units. For instance, in a first grade unit on farm animals, the students might follow this sequence: (a) Listen to a story about cows, while sitting in a circle; (b) take a turn shaking a jar of heavy cream as it comes around the circle; (c) discuss dairy products; (d) spread butter from the jar on crackers; and (e) write a group story about the experience.

Through process writing, children have many chances to write about an aspect of the theme and revise. In Wenger's (1991) unit on animals, children follow these steps: (a) Choose an animal to write about for the class newspaper, (b) write the name of the animal, (c) borrow books about the animal, (d) visit the zoo, (e) receive background information from the teacher about animals, and (f) write about what interests them most about their animal. Of course, cycles of peer editing, revising, and finally publication follow quite naturally.

Another way to check or monitor a thematic ESL unit as it is planned is to make sure that all four language skills—reading, writing, listening, and speaking—are represented in the activities. Let's illustrate this with Ryan's (1991) unit about the farm. The children listen (they see a film, "A Visit to the Farm"), speak (mixed-proficiency groups view farm animal cards, choose a favorite, and present to the class), read (they practice their lines for a play, "The Little Red Hen"), and write (they compose a group story about the play).

An additional check is to make sure that content, along with language arts activities, is an integral part of the unit. In a third grade unit on animals, Wheeler (1990) integrated science (a lesson on animal environments and food chains), social studies (mapping a country and its animals), music (the song, "There Was an Old Lady Who Swallowed a Fly"), and art (paper bag hand puppets of animals).

To sum up, I have made several major points here to help teachers in planning thematic ESL units:

1. In general, adjust the language to the learners (use sheltered English) while adding more things to see, touch, and do.
2. Plan mixed-proficiency group activities. These will supply relevant input for low-level ESL children and will challenge the native English-speakers and high-level ESL children to rephrase their language and tailor it appropriately.
3. Plan equal-ability groups for accuracy-based activities.
4. Check that all four language skills are part of the activities and that some aspects of the whole language, language experience, and process-writing approaches are being used.
5. Check that variety of content material has been incorporated.

The units cited here (all developed by classroom teachers) are intended to supply inspiration more than models. Such inspiration can be helpful because the work involved in designing thematic units is considerable; the units, of course, can be used over and over again. Teachers might also move beyond the approaches here: by planning a unit along with their students (Irujo, 1990) and by choosing themes in light of curriculum frameworks (Gianelli, 1991). The benefits of thematic units will repay teachers for their efforts. In essence, thematic units give teachers flexibility in lesson planning. They lend themselves to high-interest, motivating lessons in which children learn and use English in a variety of ways, while mastering content at the same time. ■

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CATESOL EXCHANGE

How Can Content-Based Instruction Be Implemented at the High School Level?

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Researchers and language teachers have pointed out that there is a strong need for integrated language and content programs for ESL learners at the elementary and secondary level (Mohan, 1986; Cantoni-Harvey, 1987). The chief goal of such programs is to focus on academic competence in addition to language communication skills. Educators such as Gianelli (1991) who have implemented thematic units in their ESL curriculum report positive results. The question which needs to be answered is no longer whether it is effective to implement content-based instruction but how the integration of language and content can take place in school settings.

To investigate this issue, I have chosen to describe a content-based ESL program at Thomas Jefferson High School in Los Angeles, where I currently teach. The official name of the program is ESL Humanitas. The program originated at Cleveland Humanities Magnet High School a decade ago, envisioned and created by teacher Neil Anstead. In 1986, the Los Angeles Educational Partnership received a grant from the Rockefeller Foundation to fund mainstream English interdisciplinary programs in non magnet settings. Jefferson High School was one of the first eight sites to launch Humanitas. The project has now expanded to 29 schools in the Los Angeles Unified School District, and new teams of teachers are trained each year.

In 1990, the ESL section of Humanitas was established as an experimental program in four Los Angeles high schools: Jefferson, North Hollywood, Monroe, and Gardena. It was designed to utilize content for language acquisition and develop students' awareness of the interconnection in all areas of knowledge. Some of the philosophical premises of the Humanitas program are to break down artificial boundaries between disciplines and to develop written, oral, and critical thinking skills through a writing-based curriculum.

The design of the Jefferson ESL program resembles the adjunct model of content-based instruction, which is more typically found in postsecondary settings. The participating students are concurrently enrolled in coordinated classes of ESL, biology, and U.S. history. The curriculum of each semester is divided into three thematic units, and all language assignments are related to these predetermined themes. The classes are linked through a sharing of the themes, and they complement each other by mutually coordinated assignments. The content of biology and U.S. history is reinforced in the language class; thus, the students use English in the language class to read and write about the topics covered in the two content classes.

All of the ESL students in the program at Jefferson High come from Latin America and have low-intermediate to intermediate levels of English proficiency when they enter the program. They are classified as ESL 3 during the first semester and ESL 4 in the second semester. Classes meet in a four-hour block of instruction every day; there are two periods of ESL instruction, one period of biology, and one period of U.S. history.

The umbrella theme for the two-semester program is human relations. The subthemes, three for each semester, are related to each other, and are recycled throughout the school year. The subthemes are introduced in the following order:

Fall Semester

(a) culture and human behavior
(b) identity and self-awareness
(c) the protestant ethic and the spirit of capitalism

Spring Semester

(d) immigration and racial prejudice
(e) individual and group power
(f) atomic age—conflicts and resolutions

Key concepts link the subthemes and are addressed in all three classes. For example, the first unit on culture and human behavior includes the following concepts:

1. Culture is the collection of values, beliefs, customs, and language that people share in common and which can be taught to the next generation.

2. Culture is necessary for survival and the existence of human beings as human beings.

3. Human beings are the product of culture and biology.

4. Learning a language involves learning a culture; it is a process of forming one's identity. (The concept of identity introduced here becomes a natural bridge for the next unit on self-awareness and identity.)

The ESL class for the first unit on culture and human behavior covers different components of culture, introduces key vocabulary, and analyzes the process of acquiring a language and entering the cultural domain of human life as exemplified by the life of Helen Keller. In the biology class, the students study the difference between human and nonhuman behavior and focus on how human behavior is culturally determined. The U.S. history class focuses on the cultural roots (Indian and European) of Hispanic populations and sheds some light on historical causes of cultural differences between the U.S. and Latin America.

One of the major challenges of interdisciplinary instruction is integrating the content across participating classes. The students, accustomed to the traditional high school program, have to adjust to this connection between the English and content classes, which they perceive as unrelated. Theme integration is achieved through a variety of assignments, one of which involves the students' presenting a visual-oral self-awareness project in the ESL class in which they explore their Indian-Hispanic cultural roots. In another assignment, the students create a new civilization on an unknown planet with the focus on the biological adaptation of a group of humans to a new environment. In still another integrated activity, students are involved in producing a movie on the basis of the short story, "On the Sidewalk Bleeding" by Evan Hunter, which they have read and analyzed in the ESL class. This video project is the culminating activity of the unit. It follows discussions and written assignments pertaining to life choices and consequences and reflects the students' explorations of their awareness of these choices. This project exemplifies how art can be brought into the classroom to provide students with opportunities for creative self-expression; it also provides a transition to the second subtheme of identity and self-awareness.

Written assignments are another method of integrating our curriculum. The team structure of Humanitas allows all three instructors to work with the students on particular assignments from the very beginning of the program. Moreover, the students are able to work throughout the day on one topic, developing their ideas and written products as they move from one class to another.

As the ESL teacher in this program, I have observed incredible development in the Humanitas students' language skills compared to the students in the traditional ESL classes which I also teach. One of the main areas of growth is in essay organization. As a teaching strategy, I provide students with authentic models of essay writing from primary sources such as Bertrand Russell's autobiography. During the first semester, the Humanitas students are able to produce coherent multiparagraph essays which evidence higher order thinking skills while their peers in non-Humanitas classes are still working on paragraphs retelling their personal experiences. The Humanitas students' essays, on the other hand, discuss such concepts as the loss of Indians' identity under the Spanish occupation of the Americas. The success of such conceptual writing in the content-based program supports the view that content teaching facilitates language learning and that academic progress does not need to be delayed by deferring content-area instruction until students are proficient in the second language (Curtain, 1986).

The fact that the Humanitas students are taught by a team of teachers who simultaneously discuss the same concepts and often disagree about them provides an atmosphere which stimulates intellectual curiosity. It also encourages students to take risks in defining their own point of view. Initially students are often confused when they find out that teachers do not want them to repeat their opinions but search instead for their own. Gradually they sharpen their critical judgment skills and start asking questions. Such questioning of concepts, in my experience, occurs less frequently in traditional ESL classes.

An evaluation of the general Humanitas program was recently conducted by the Center for the Study of Evaluation at UCLA (Aschbacher, 1991). The study reported a significant improvement in students' writing over the course of a year. Furthermore, the study found that: "The impact [of the program] was particularly noticeable on students' conceptual understanding, where Humanitas students made their largest gains and comparison students made virtually no improvement during the year" (p. 18).

At the end of the first year of the ESL Humanitas Program at Jefferson High, we also had a very strong impression that the Humanitas ESL students were ahead of other ESL students in English skills and cognitive abilities. The progress of our ESL students seems to be congruent with the overall progress of the mainstream Humanitas students who surpassed their peers and improved their school performance in such areas as writing skills and grades earned (Merl, 1991).[1]

The current ESL Humanitas program at Jefferson High is designed as a one-year project; its expansion is presently being considered. The possible directions being discussed are post-ESL (students continuing on after they exit ESL classes) and ESL 2 (low-intermediate) entry options. Although the students who leave the current program can function very successfully in regular mainstream classes, the mainstream Humanitas program is still too challenging for them linguistically. The post-ESL section would create an opportunity for them to continue their conceptual development at an appropriate language level. Moreover, it is hoped that a three-year program commencing at the ESL 2 level would prepare these students for the academic rigors of college work.

Our year and a half experience with the Humanitas Program at Jefferson High has revealed several important issues, which can serve others as guidelines for setting up a content-based program. Since the instructional teams are creating an original curriculum, they need various kinds of support. For one, the teams need access to good photocopying facilities, since they teach primarily from teacher-produced materials adapted from a number of resources. Teachers and program coordinators also need support of a different kind—namely release time to develop these teaching materials, to attend training workshops, and to plan and coordinate field trips and cultural events. There are presently three training centers for the district-wide Humanitas Program where the instructional teams are able to receive in-service training. Additional funds are also made available for a two-week Summer Academy, which provides an invaluable opportunity for all teachers who wish to share experiences and refine their programs. Funding for many of the above support services has come from the Los Angeles Educational Partnership, the Rockefeller Foundation, and other private institutions.

Finally, our experience with content-based instruction at the secondary school level has revealed that setting up a team that can work effectively together is a key ingredient to success. It is important, in my opinion, that instructors be allowed to create their own teams voluntarily. Developing a new curriculum, adapting materials to the students' developing language levels, and meeting with team members to coordinate instruction requires a great deal of effort. Being a Humanitas ESL teacher means learning other subjects to integrate the concepts and assignments, taking risks and experimenting with new ideas, and being alert to shortcomings and ready to make changes constantly. If a team of teachers is willing to face these challenges, a content-based program can provide a long-awaited opportunity for tremendous growth both for students and their teachers. ■

Footnotes

1. I am currently attempting to capture this growth empirically in a study which compares the ESL Humanitas and non-Humanitas groups. To this end, I have collected data from the ESL 2 and ESL 4 final exams (mandatory district tests), the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test, and the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills and will be analyzing them shortly in my master's thesis.

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CATESOL EXCHANGE

How Does One Go About Developing Content-Based Materials for the Commercial ESL/EFL Market?

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Today's teachers of ESL and EFL seem to be searching for materials that challenge their students—materials that require interaction and creativity, that are exciting, and that focus on meaningful content. Many want materials that more fully engage the minds of readers and are less tightly controlled than those of the "drill-and-kill" variety.

My own attempt to reach such a market is reflected in *Reading in the Content Areas* (1990) and *Exploring Themes* (in press), which I will use as examples throughout this discussion. Because the major thrust of my own content-based materials has been anthologies of selected readings, naturally I feel more comfortable talking about such texts than I do about other kinds of materials. It should be kept in mind, however, that many of the suggestions offered here can be applied to other kinds of texts.

While preparing content-based materials, it might be wise for authors and editors to contemplate the following questions:

For whom are the materials intended? Are they intended for children, adolescents, or adults? Are they for beginning, intermediate, or advanced students? Are these students in ESL or EFL programs? What are their goals? Needs? Interests? Learning styles? Under what time and other constraints will they most likely be working? In sum, the materials must be appropriate for the learner and for the situation.

What do you expect the students to be able to do as a result of reading your materials? If you expect that in the content areas students will use language mainly as a vehicle to learning content, then the focus must be on the content itself. Through this focus the student can be expected to reach progressively higher levels of proficiency in areas such as the following: comprehending intended meaning, internalizing knowledge, applying knowledge, synthesizing experience, and so forth. Much of what is expected will depend upon the cognitive levels, needs, and goals of the students.

What kinds of readings will you include? In *Reading in the Content Areas,* which is intended for international students planning to attend English-speaking colleges and universities, I wanted to include authentic readings from currently used textbooks representing a variety of subject areas. In order to find appropriate, up-to-date readings, I used the university bookstore as my main source. Fortunately, the manager was willing to let me borrow books for short periods of time. If you are doing an edited book such as the one above, other sources of selected readings may be the community or public school libraries. In *Exploring Themes,* which is intended for the same audience, I wanted to include stories, poems, songs, and cartoons that were both relevant and exciting and that related directly to the themes I had chosen. To find just the right inclusions, I poured over numerous journals and volumes in libraries and bookstores; I asked friends and relatives what favorites they might recommend. Even my own dog-eared collections served as sources.

Regardless of the subject area in which the materials are to be prepared, the selections included should be chosen because of not only their content but their general appeal to students. They should be well written, but not too technical (unless, of course, students are ready to deal with technical materials). In addition, they should contain careful explanations of major concepts in the case of expository pieces and visual support of many kinds: clearly constructed graphs and tables, pictures, photos, and so forth. They should avoid an overuse of idiomatic language, which is apt to cause difficulty for second language students. Moreover, the selections need to be long enough to engage the reader to the point at which full understanding becomes likely. Many readings selected for textbooks are too short and too dull to even begin to involve the reader in any meaningful way.

What sorts of activities might be included? As I stated in the notes to the teacher in *Reading in the Content Areas,* "In order that it have the best possible chance for becoming internalized, content must be explored in sufficient depth so that the reader can experience its presence, reflect upon its substance, and expand upon its meaning" (p. x). The activities should aid in this process. Prereading with use of anticipation guides, prediction, and discussion questions relating to prior knowledge and experience is important in providing the schema necessary to understanding the selection. For example, in *Exploring Themes,* a questioning strategy is used to prepare students for a story entitled "Blue Winds Dancing," which is about a person from a nondominant culture returning home.

> *Sometimes people find themselves far away from home and from those they love. Many dream of returning one day. Think about your own situation. Are you now far away from home? If so, what do you think might happen if you returned? What would be the joys? Might there also be some fear? If so, explain.*

Students are to discuss these questions with a partner.

One word of caution here. Prereading activities should not be too lengthy. Sometimes authors, in their attempt to cover all bases through extensive preparation, will put the student into a state of lethargy even before the reading begins. I have found that while students appreciate having their curiosity piqued and a cognitive scaffold established to make comprehension easier, they do not appreciate putting on hold whatever motivation they may already have to read the selection.

Questions following each selection might begin at the knowledge level (What mixed feelings does the main character have about returning home?) and progress toward more cognitively challenging questions (Do you know of other persons who have had experiences similar to that of the main character? How did these persons react? How do human beings usually react in such situations?) Other activities might include role play, interviewing, small group discussions, writing of various types, and so forth, all related directly to the reading selections. Through the activities students should begin to increase their confidence in their abilities to analyze, synthesize, and evaluate what they read.

How should the selections be organized? They may be organized thematically. For example, in *Exploring Themes*, which is literature-based, the readings fall into themes that I thought would be of high interest: "All That Glitters..." (about money and its relationship to happiness), "Between Cultures," "The Search for Love," and others. Or selections may be organized according to subject area. For example, *Reading in the Content Areas* is organized around such subjects as sociology, psychology, art, and so forth. Regardless of the basic organizational scheme, the selections should be arranged to maximize the students' feelings of success in gaining mastery over the language. Essential considerations include: (a) the natural reinforcement of concepts, structures, and skills within the selections themselves; and (b) the difficulty levels, both semantic and syntactic, of the selections. It should be remembered that judgments in these matters are complicated and highly subjective. It must be kept in mind too that the difficulty of any given selection will ultimately depend on the student and on the student's prior knowledge and experience.

How should new vocabulary be handled? In many ESL textbooks on the market today, vocabulary is dealt with in exercises found before as well as after the selection. I personally prefer to use carefully prepared glossaries and individualized practice with vocabulary items selected by the student under the guidance of the teacher. Glossaries containing clues and definitions placed at the bottoms of the pages on which the words or phrases are found give students assistance when it is most needed, while they are reading.

Content-based instruction presents many challenges for the selection and adaptation of authentic materials. Although an attempt has been made here to cover a few considerations important to content-based materials development for publication, this discussion is by no means comprehensive. There is still a great deal to be learned about developing materials which integrate language and content instruction. ■

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CATESOL EXCHANGE

What Challenges Do Content-Based Program Administrators Face?

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In 1989 my colleagues Ann Snow, Mari Wesche, and I addressed practical considerations in content-based program implementation in our book *Content-Based Second Language Instruction* (pp. 70-88). The treatment of the topic was not meant to be an exhaustive one, but rather intended to highlight the particular issues and challenges germane to administering content-based programs. None of us had had a great deal of experience administering such programs, and content-based instruction (CBI) was still more or less in its infancy. My experience in the past few years has been more intensively in this realm—that is, I have been involved in administering a year-long content-based ESL program for concurrently enrolled university students at UCLA[1] as well as a summer adjunct program for visiting international students offered through UCLA Summer Sessions. Being in the administrative hot seat for these programs has enabled me to see the issues more clearly than I had before, and it is with this in mind that I share this experience below.[2]

Program administrators wear many hats—regardless of the type of program involved. Most frequently, they spearhead innovation and oversee the implementation of curricular philosophy as reflected in course objectives, syllabus specifications, and course activities and materials. They also assume responsibility for such critical aspects as budgeting, hiring instructors and support staff, selecting and ordering textbooks, scheduling class times and rooms, and providing for duplication facilities and audio-visual needs. On the student end, they produce and distribute promotional materials, contact program sponsors, and recruit and advise students. Finally, they direct ongoing evaluation efforts—student placement and achievement testing, instructor observation, program evaluation, and the like (see Pennington & Xiao, 1990 and Matthies, 1991 for a more detailed discussion of these activities). Carrying out all of the above duties requires a combination of pedagogical savvy, market insight, managerial talent, and crisis intervention skills.

The above picture is a generic portait of the ESL program administrator and does not take into account any of the special challenges of content-based program administration to which I alluded previously. I maintain that Murphy's Law, which prevails in all of program administration, is all the more prevalent in CBI, since in CBI we are mapping new boundaries in general. This redefinition of boundaries entails an accompanying redefinition of the program administrator's responsibilities.

The following insights from my recent administrative experience with the ESL summer adjunct program for international students will hopefully serve to alert others to some of the salient aspects which need special attention if content-based programs are to be effectively administered.[3] I share these experiences with the 1991 UCLA Advanced English Program (AEP) at the risk of being recognized as a novice program administrator, which I openly confess to being. Nonetheless, I believe that the hurdles which I jumped (or as the case may be, stumbled over) during the course of this program are not uncommon ones, and that anyone involved in the administration of content-based programs can benefit from being forewarned as to what may lie ahead.

Our job was facilitated by a supportive sponsor, UCLA Summer Sessions, whose staff understood the issues involved and were committed to the long-range goal of implementing CBI, even if it meant operating at a loss for the first year or two (which, needless to say, we managed to do). My coadministrator and I were fully prepared to deal with the types of problems discussed in the 1989 work cited above—for example, inadequate funding for the program, insufficient compensation for teaching faculty, lack of collaborative spirit among teachers, incomplete faculty understanding of CBI principles, unsuitable facilities, scheduling problems, excessive teacher work load, and the like.

In fact, none of these occurred. Because of the favored status our program enjoyed with the administration, we received priority room scheduling; further, we were able to budget adequately for our material needs (e.g., photocopying, audio-visual supplies) and even received support which exceeded our expectations (such as access to the university's computer lab facilities and tutorial services and a modest entertainment budget which covered an end-of-term student barbecue). We requested (and received) 150% summer pay for the teachers in our program, arguing that since they were working from a reactive curriculum in which they had to respond on a day-to-day basis to what was being presented in the content course, they would be developing most of their own teaching materials. Finally, through a brief but fruitful presessional workshop with the teachers involved, we were able to build on an already existing collaborative spirit and further orient teachers to the most critical underlying principles of CBI.[4]

Challenges

The following challenges, however, caught us more unprepared.

Student Recruitment

We were scheduled to offer two back-to-back six-week sessions, for which Summer Sessions had promised us 150 students each. The reality of offering a content-based program for the designated proficiency level,[5] however, soon became clear, as rosters for the first session showed only 12 students enrolled in the program. Eventually we were able to secure 18 students who both fit our desired profile (i.e., academically oriented with the required TOEFL level) and were interested in participating in the program. The second summer session fared slightly better, with a Japanese client providing the majority of the 88 students who participated. However, this brought with it a problem of a different nature, namely that the Japanese/non-Japanese (i.e., European and South American) mix in this session was extremely uneven, leading to certain cross-cultural problems which impacted negatively on the effectiveness of the program. This was particularly evident in the speech component, in which the oral proficiency differences of the Japanese and non-Japanese students were most evident, and where student needs diverged most radically.

Packaging the Program

We had attempted to communicate the nature of the program through specially designed promotional materials. Where possible (both in Japan and later when students had arrived on campus), we also held a student orientation to present program specifics and answer questions. However, we found that explaining a complex venture like CBI in language which is accessible to students (and especially within the confines of brochure copy) is a near but impossible task. The student orientation session at UCLA was slightly more successful; however, the complete unfamiliarity of students with this model of instruction made it difficult for them to imagine the integrated language and content teaching they would be experiencing. Many, in fact, were puzzled by the information presented, and opted instead to enroll in the more traditional intensive language program also available to them on campus.

Red Tape

Working within a bureaucratic hierarchy has its rewards (such as staff available to assist in various aspects of the program) and its punishments. Because our program was part of the regular summer offerings, our students enrolled through the central office, which also handles drop/add requests and the like. Staff in the Summer

Sessions office did not understand that in our model of linked courses, section changes entailed a change in not one course, but in the entire suite of courses which comprised the program (here, ESL, speech, and the content course). This was but the beginning of numerous red tape snags.

Selection of Content Classes

We wanted to offer a wide variety of content courses. However, in order to facilitate curriculum and materials development efforts, we had to team ESL teachers and attach multiple sections of ESL to a given content area. This limited the number of content courses we could offer. The eventual AEP content course offerings (economics, psychology, western civilization, American history 1900-present, and communication studies) were selected with a view toward allowing students to select from introductory courses across a broad spectrum of disciplines. In selecting these courses, we also considered factors such as the instructional effectiveness of the professors involved and their willingness to include international students in their classes. Unfortunately, we did not always have access to the instructors' syllabuses or reading lists, nor did we know in advance the academic backgrounds and interests of our student population. What in fact occurred was that the majority of students preferred the communication studies course, with far fewer selecting the remainder of the classes.

One of the issues we did not adequately anticipate in content course selection was the degree to which students' prior background knowledge would figure in their content course performance. This in fact proved to be the case in western civilization, economics, and American history. Especially in the American history class, the American students had a distinct cultural advantage over the international students—most of whom had never heard of Malcolm X, the WPA, the New Deal, and so forth. Finally, the six-book course reading load for the American history course (which included a novel and several autobiographies as well as several academic textbooks) overwhelmed the international students and caused several to abandon their attempt to keep up with the content course material.

Cultural Misunderstandings

Cultural misunderstandings are bound to occur in any program, especially those involving recently arrived international students who may be experiencing culture shock. In a content-based program, students not only experience the predictable kinds of cultural alienation, but suffer as well from lack of prior exposure to the university system. Perhaps the most interesting of our summer experiences with this involved a student from France who, misunderstanding the scantron instructions on his midterm psychology exam, designated the *no post* grade column, assuming that this meant the grade would be reported to him personally rather than mailed to him. When he did not find his grade listed on the midterm grade roster, he interpreted this as meaning he had failed the exam. Disappointed, he stopped attending the psychology class. Only through intervention by his ESL instructor, who sensed that something was wrong, was the situation righted. These kinds of misunderstanding may seem somewhat trivial or even amusing when first encountered; however, they clearly undermine students' efforts to achieve their academic goals and thus impact seriously on the program administrator's attempts to maintain the integrity of the program.

Attrition

No doubt all programs suffer from problems of attrition. However, in an adjunct model program, the attrition factor is compounded by the fact that a student who is failing one class is in all likelihood at risk in the linked course as well; thus once the failure factor sets in, it is multiplied over the number of courses involved, and students do not have the usual recourse of doubling their efforts in their "other" courses. This situation was certainly the case in AEP, especially in those courses (e.g., economics, American history) where background knowledge played a larger role. Since these courses were ones with lower student enrollments to begin with, this backwash effect was particularly disruptive to the effective implementation of the adjunct model, and teachers in both the linked courses experienced a high degree of frustration as a result.

Conclusions

Having detailed the above setbacks, which impeded the smooth administration of the program, I'd like to end with several recommendations. First, adjunct programs require a high level of student proficiency. Student recruitment at this end of the proficiency scale is difficult, since there may not be sufficient numbers of students who meet the designated cutoff requirements. Without focused, long-term efforts on the part of the sponsor, such programs will not be realizable. Second, such recruitment efforts need to be backed up by well-planned and professional program packaging. In other words, the program will need to be described in such a way that students understand its purpose and intent. Planning ahead for the future of AEP, for example, we have assembled video footage of participants in which they candidly give their own assessment of the program. This footage, once edited, will be available in enrollment centers to pique students' curiosity and present a more valid picture of what this type of language study entails.

Next, although being a part of a centralized bureaucracy can provide a program with important support services, content-based programs have special requirements which fall outside the realm of the procedures normally followed in the centralized administration. Such programs can therefore definitely benefit from having a decentralized structure (or at least a clearly detailed set of special procedures) to handle admissions, enrollment, and scheduling. This would prevent situations in which students are misdirected or falsely informed and would certainly simplify the administration of such programs. In terms of content class selection and cultural misunderstandings, a more sensitive administration (i.e., one aware of the types of pitfalls encountered in AEP) would be able to more effectively orient students to the U.S. university system and select courses which require less cultural background knowledge on the part of the students. Finally, the likelihood of attrition from the program can be lessened by attending to a number of the above recommendations.

Even in the administratively difficult arena of CBI, the ends do justify the means. Satisfied students and teachers and documented program success are the ultimate administrator's reward, and it is my belief that an effectively administered content-based program, by virtue of the meaningful language exposure and practice which it provides, produces these desired end results.

Students in AEP made measured gains in their writing and speaking skills, and (as measured via a self-assessment instrument) increased in their perceived ability to perform a variety of academic tasks (e.g., ability to take notes from a lecture, read an academic textbook, or ask a professor a question in office hours). They also showed gains in their academic writing skills on a pre/post composition measure. When asked to rate the program's effectiveness, they gave it high ratings in terms of the help it provided in improving their academic writing and listening skills as well as their English conversation and textbook reading skills. The teachers, too, expressed satisfaction in their end-of-term reviews of curriculum, as summarized by the following teacher comment: "My overall experience with the Summer Adjunct Program this year was quite positive—certainly the best of my four summers teaching summer-institute-type programs. Where the content class was concerned, students received clearly presented, comprehensible input . . . As for [the ESL class], the class worked much of the time in an almost magical way. If an ordinary [ESL class] were half as involved with the material and the discussions as this class was, it would still be a good class." Given these kinds of rewards, I would heartily encourage others to embark on the venture of content-based program administration, and I would further urge them to document their administrative efforts, thus building on the groundwork which I lay in this article. ■

Footnotes

1. See the article in this volume by Repath and Valentine for a more complete description of the curriculum in this program.

2. In both of these programs, I was fortunate to share administrative duties with my colleagues Brian Lynch (academic director, UCLA ESL Service Courses) and Jean Turner (codirector, UCLA Summer Sessions Advanced English Program). Though the opinions stated here are my own, I owe a large debt to both Brian and Jean for facilitating the administration of these ventures.

3. This program, like the UCLA Freshman Summer Program (FSP), follows the adjunct model of program design (see Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989). However, it differs in terms of audience (international students studying in the U.S. during the summer, not immigrant freshman students who are regularly admitted to a U.S. university) and in certain of its design elements. For example, students attend two linked courses (ESL and a content area course) plus a general (nonadjuncted) English conversation course, unlike FSP in which students attend only two linked classes.

4. See the contribution by Peter Master in this volume for more information on preservicing and in-servicing teachers in the CBI context.

5. This program was designed for students at the higher end of the proficiency spectrum (TOEFL 500+).

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The CATESOL Journal

CATESOL EXCHANGE

What Options Exist for Funding Content-Based Programs?

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Implementing innovative programs at all levels of instruction requires significant resources. Content-based instruction is no exception. While we have seen examples in this issue of individual teachers or teams of teachers who have created content-based courses for their students, the majority of the programs described require both administrative support and funding. Realistically, the implementation of content-based programs requires more than the usual resources, and we must, therefore, seek funding sources to cover expenses such as release time, consultant costs, materials, and other costs typically associated with such initiatives.

In this article, I will discuss options for funding content-based programs, giving examples of agencies which have funded such activities and making suggestions for writing grant proposals. While I will concentrate on external funding options, many of the strategies I suggest apply equally well to securing internal monies, and I encourage those interested to first seek funding sources within their schools and institutions. Even in these tight-budget times, there are funds available for special programs. The key is to devise content-based program proposals which meet the criteria for these special programs or which specifically match the needs of students targeted for such programs. For instance, the Freshman Summer Program at UCLA which Donna Brinton and I have reported on extensively addresses the needs of an administration concerned about persistence rates of high risk students, including ESL students.

Funding Options

When considering funding possibilities, both private and public sources should be taken into account. A number of highly successful content-based projects have been financed by private sources. The high school project reported on by Eva Wegrzecka-Monkiewicz in this issue is funded in part by the Rockefeller Foundation. This past fall, the ARCO and the XEROX Foundations underwrote a two-day workshop on integrating language and content instruction for 30 math, science, and social studies junior high school teachers from the Los Angeles Unified School District. On the East coast, the Carnegie Corporation has actively supported several projects at the Center for Applied Linguistics in Washington, DC, including the development of the *Prealgebra Lexicon*, a resource manual showing ESL teachers how to incorporate content into their language instruction and sensitizing math teachers to the language of math. Together with the Xerox Foundation, Carnegie funds also made possible the development of the teacher-training video "Communicative Math and Science Teaching."[1] It has been my experience that private agencies are very interested in funding projects in California which serve language minority students as they see our state as a mirror of the country's future. Furthermore, with the current national debate on education and the call in *America 2000* for partnerships with private industry, many foundations and private agencies are eager for the visibility which comes from funding innovative educational projects.

There are, of course, many funding options from public sources, most notably from state and federal agencies. The Cañada College adjunct program discussed by Peter Master in this issue was funded by a grant from the Underrepresented Students Special Project Fund of the Chancellor's Office of the California Community College District. At the federal level, ESEA Title VII funds from the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs (OBEMLA), U.S. Department of Education, are designated for the improvement of instruction of limited English proficient (LEP) students in elementary and secondary schools. The Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education (FIPSE), another branch of the U.S. Department of Education, is another federal funding source. The Fund was established in 1972 to support a wide variety of improvement efforts for disadvantaged students thoughout the whole range of postsecondary education, including: public and private two- and four-year colleges and universities, accredited and nonaccredited; community organizations, libraries, and museums; nonprofit trade and technical schools; unions, consortia, student groups, local government agencies; and nonprofit corporations and associations.

The preceding list is certainly not exhaustive; it provides but a glimpse of the funding options available for financing content-based programs. More information about these and other private and public funding sources is available through district offices and institutional contracts and grants offices.

Proposal Writing: Some Considerations

Writing grant proposals is a tedious, time-consuming process. Most agencies require extensive applications, and award programs are highly competitive. To improve the odds, I've compiled a few suggestions.

Expert Assistance

Seek guidance from specialists in your districts, agencies, or institutions or from colleagues who have had projects funded. Try to get copies of successful applications, and use these as models for your proposal. Even if the projects are conceptually very different, it is useful to look at the format to see how the different sections are laid out and how the objectives have been defined. The applications will also provide ideas about what to include in the implementation timeline and suggest possible designs for the evaluation component of the proposal.

Examine the budgets of these successful applications carefully. They should include cost breakdowns of major items such as consultant fees, instructor release time, secretarial assistance, conference travel, and overhead (most institutions will take a percentage of your grant!). The budget should also contain provisions for less expensive items which are often overlooked but tend to mount up—postage, long distance telephone calls, office supplies, photocopying, and so forth. When preparing your budget, you may also be required to take into account cost-of-living increases or staff and faculty raises which have already been approved or are pending. Finally, many agencies require both a budget and a budget narrative. By looking at sample applications, you can see how the two differ.

When allowed, make contact with the project officer at the agency to which you are applying. Project officers can help clarify technical questions about application requirements and, sometimes, they are even at liberty to make direct suggestions or comment on the strengths or weaknesses of your proposal. Even when this is not the case, they will often hint at the types of projects they or their agency are most interested in funding. A project officer from a federal funding agency recently expressed surprise to me at how seldom prospective applicants actually take her suggestions to heart and revise accordingly. Clearly, good listening skills and the ability to read between the lines are useful attributes in such conversations. In other cases, expert assistance is available through state and local agencies. For example, the Bilingual Education Office of the California State Department of Education provides materials to assist applicants in the writing of ESEA Title VII applications.[2]

Making Your Case

You must construct a case for your proposed project by documenting a critical need, demonstrating how the project meets this need, and detailing how you will determine the effectiveness of the project. In a recent successful proposal to FIPSE, for example, my codirector and I built our case around our campus demographics at CSULA, where 66% of our students come from non-English speaking home backgrounds. We claimed that the majority of these students (who are U.S.-born language minority students) are not served by traditional ESL programs but nevertheless at risk in the undergraduate curriculum. To respond to the unmet needs of this population, we designed "Project LEAP: Learning-English-for-Academic-Purposes" which aims at improving the academic literacy skills of these students by redesigning the syllabi of selected general education courses and developing adjunct study groups which have a content and language dvelopment focus.

In addition to making your case using demographic and statistical data such as achievement scores, attrition rates, and the like, check to insure that your project has the built-in *multiplier effects* and results in the *capacity building* that funding agencies look for. In other words, agencies want to see that your project reaches the widest possible audience and that you insure in some concerted way its long-term impact, such as getting your institution to commit to funding the program after the grant expires. In certain circumstances, you may even try to convince the funding agency that your proposed program has the potential to be a self-supporting, money-making enterprise.

An attempt to achieve the multiplier effect can be seen in a Title VII project which has been implemented at six junior high schools in the Los Angeles Unified School District. The six schools, located in East Los Angeles, primarily serve language minority students from Hispanic backgrounds. In addition to other components of the project such as a peer-tutoring and parents-as-partners program, the project targets both ESL and subject matter teachers, familiarizing them with language development principles and promoting the integration of language and content instruction. Sixty project teachers from each of the six schools have agreed to specialize in specific topics such as cooperative learning, sheltered English, reciprocal teaching, journal writing, or study skills instruction. They attend workshops on these topics conducted by outside consultants, then return to their school sites to train their colleagues. This trainer of trainers model draws on Tharp and Gallimore's (1988) notion of teachers as "critical friends" by building in a peer-coaching component. Similarly, in the FIPSE project at CSULA which I described in the previous section, we are trying to insure the multiplier effect by producing training manuals and videotapes for each of the general education courses we redesign over the three years of project funding.

The objective is to guarantee that the impact of the project will arc beyond the project participants to a wider circle of influence. This serves to satisfy the funding agency that not only will its investment reach a wide audience, but new skills or capacities will be built which will remain well after the life of the grant.

Another consideration in successful grant writing involves decisions about key personnel. Often innovative programs are launched by an energetic individual whose enthusiasm and hard work initially carry the project almost single-handedly. It is important, however, to maintain momentum throughout the duration of project funding. Failure to do so is often the ultimate downfall of innovative programs. In fact, in critiquing the early writing across the curriculum projects, Fulwiler and Young (1990) note that many of these programs, while very effective in the beginning, seemed to lose steam when the person who was the early source of inspiration lost interest, left the institution, or, for whatever reason, was no longer involved in the project. This experience should guide us in designing content-based programs that are as broadly based as possible in their administrative structure.

Collaboration

Most funding agencies look very favorably upon collaboration between institutions such as between elementary schools and the local college or university. In fact, many successful projects build in collaboration as a cornerstone of the program. For example, a FIPSE-funded project at Georgia State University is investigating the academic literacy demands of high school and university courses in the subject areas of history, English, political science, and biology. Once these demands are described, secondary and university faculty from across the disciplines will then discuss the findings in a series of workshops. From these discussions, collaborative teams will make plans for curricular modification at both levels of instruction with the aim of better preparing students for undergraduate course work. Building in this kind of collaboration has several advantages. It insures that the results of the study at the university will reach the high school teachers directly. It also sets up a forum for university and high school subject matter specialists to talk to each other, a rare opportunity indeed.

Clearly, collaboration can appear in many forms. Since content-based instruction, by its very definition, relies on the integration of language and content teaching, building in collaboration should be a central concern of project design. These channels of collaboration will both strengthen the project and increase its multiplier effect.

Evaluation and Research

With the increasing emphasis on accountability, most funding agencies require a comprehensive evaluation plan in the proposal. Even if you are not required to submit a detailed evaluation plan, it is still important to design the evaluation *before* beginning the project, not after the fact. Again, you should seek out experts in your district, agencies, and institutions to assist in the design of your evaluation plan.

I'd like to encourage readers to contribute to the growing research base in content-based instruction, in addition to carrying out effective program evaluations. More studies are needed like the one reported on in this issue by Valentine and Repath-Martos, who examined the needs, interest, and motivation of university students enrolled in content-based classes. Research efforts in content-based instruction recently received a boost at the national level when the U.S. Department of Education awarded a three-year contract to the Center for Applied Linguistics to conduct a descriptive study of content-ESL practices. The study will examine practices and programs for LEP students in which second language instruction is integrated with specific content instruction or throughout the curriculum. The purpose of the study is to identify the range of programs (kindergarten through grade 12) and the salient student, teacher, community, program, and other characteristics which are correlated with the existence and the effectiveness of content-ESL practices. An elaborate data collection program, including questionnaire and telephone and in-person interviews will be launched, in an attempt to discover not only the lone teacher using content-ESL practices but also more broadly based whole-school efforts across the country.[3]

In short, well-conceived and documented program evaluation and research studies will inform our pedagogical decisions and provide the evidence we need to convince both our own administrations and funding agencies of the efficacy of content-based instruction.

Conclusion

We have seen in this issue that content-based instruction as an approach offers the theoretical justification and practical results necessary to merit the investment of both internal and external funds. I encourage you to follow up on the suggestions presented here for seeking funding sources and to attempt the time-intensive, but often rewarding task of proposal writing. ■

Footnotes

1. The *Prealgebra Lexicon* and "Communicative Math and Science Teaching" (and an instructional guide) are available from the Center for Applied Linguistics, 1118 22nd St., NW, Washington, DC 20037, (202) 429-9292.

2. "Preparing the Program Design" is available to assist prospective project directors with applications for a number of different ESEA, Title VII programs. The document describes key areas of program design such as goals, participants, and program rationale, and lists important questions that prospective project directors should consider. A copy of this document can be obtained by calling the Bilingual Education Office in Sacramento at (916) 323-6205.

3. If you or your school is using content-ESL practices, I'd be delighted to hear about them as part of the OBEMLA study. Please write to me at the School of Education, California State University, Los Angeles, 5151 State University Dr., Los Angeles, CA 90032.

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REVIEW

Science for Language Learners

Ann K. Fathman and Mary Ellen Quinn.
New York: Prentice Hall Regents. 1989.

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Science for Language Learners by Ann K. Fathman and Mary Ellen Quinn is a science textbook for second language learners in both the ESL and EFL contexts. It combines science experiences and language activities with the specific goal of developing language. The authors specify that their text is intended for elementary through senior high school students and state that it has been used successfully with adult students. However, the book presents scientific concepts which are strictly elementary, uses simple forms of English, and features only young children in photos, making the text most appropriate for elementary school language learners.

The book is divided into five units, all loosely revolving around the central theme of energy. For each unit the scientific objective and the language objective are clearly stated on the first page. Then the unit is divided into three components: a preliminary scientific demonstration by the teacher,, investigating the concepts with a cooperative group, and investigating the concepts independently.

The science content presented in the book is current and appropriate for high-intermediate to advanced students. The language objectives expressly written into the format of the units are functional and include directing, requesting, describing, defining, suggesting, expressing opinions, agreeing, disagreeing, comparing, and classifying. Students practice these functions in both small group and independent work. They do a great deal of listening and speaking in addition to practicing other forms of language included in the unit.

Students must process all of the information presented to them during the teacher demonstration, apply this knowledge during small group activities, and complete the exercises based on this knowledge. However, this student-centered approach promoted by the authors works only if the students are motivated to learn. For this reason the teacher demonstration preceding each of the units is most crucial.

While the authors identify their method as an "integrated skills approach," the program suffers from a glaring lack of content reading material. The only reading students do is in the form of directions for the exercises. A short passage explaining the scientific concept in accessible language could be provided for individual reading prior to the teacher's scientific demonstration. This would allow the student of elementary cognitive and linguistic ability to begin building a knowledge base from which to draw during the demonstration, the small group activity, and the independent work.

Overall, the text is a good one. Particularly beneficial is the hands-on approach to both independent and group work. However, the program could be improved if teachers supplemented the units with short passages describing each type of energy. Such passages might even be adapted or taken directly from the background information in the teacher's guide. ■

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REVIEW

Content Area ESL: Social Studies

Dennis Terdy. Palatine, IL: Linmore Publishing, Inc. 1986.

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This book is designed to help secondary LEP students at the intermediate level transition to mainstream classes. The text covers U.S. history and has 18 chronological units, each with prereading exercises, a two-page reading passage, and follow-up exercises. The coverage is generally adequate, although Abraham Lincoln's assassination is not mentioned, and the westward expansion is touched on only briefly.

The materials are presented in an integrative approach. Each unit concentrates on study skills, speaking, listening, vocabulary, reading, grammar, and writing. The prereading activities recognize students' previous experiences, while the writing activities focus on students' reactions or opinions, or ask students to write (e.g., a letter or a newspaper article) from the perspective of a participant of the time period. Although many of the activities focus on comprehension, there are numerous student-centered activities that stretch students' critical thinking skills—such as the exercise asking students to describe how the Civil Rights Movement changed their lives.

The text is well organized and uses subtitles and boldface print to facilitate comprehension. The reading passages, albeit a little stilted, are generally appropriate for intermediate LEP students; however, some difficult vocabulary is unexplained, leaving students on their own to decipher such terms as *boycotted, depth charges, disadvantaged,* and *space shuttle missions.* The length of the readings remains constant throughout the book, as does their difficulty level. It would have been challenging to have both progressively escalate.

The text also limits students' access by assuming that they have some background in social studies. Map exercises require students to use *north, south, east,* and *west,* but the maps are not labelled with these directions, and no explanation is provided. Additionally, there are only eight maps in the entire book—seven of the United States and one of Europe. Yet the readings frequently refer to countries in other areas of the world without further identifying their locations.

Apart from these shortcomings, the graphical literacy sections are well designed and include activities with easily-comprehended timelines, diagrams, charts, tables, and graphs.

Two other shortcomings limit the text's usefulness. The first concerns the illustrations, which are black and white and not especially interesting or enlightening. In one instance, there is a photograph of a rundown farmhouse with a man and a boy hurriedly approaching it. The caption states, "Dust storm in Oklahoma, 1936" (p. 106); yet there is no dust storm evident. On the same page there is a photograph of "A failed bank, 1936," but all that is shown is a bank building with some boarded-up windows. There are no people in the picture to emphasize the desperation a failed bank produces.

The second shortcoming involves cultural sensitivity. While the author shows great cultural sensitivity in his treatment of immigrants and Native Americans, he could have reinforced students' cultural pride by including maps and pictures of countries of origin with his texts about immigrants; he could also have included activities that build on students' own experiences as immigrants.

The strengths of this book are its integrated, well-planned activities and organizational strategies that increase students' access to the information. Its main weaknesses—uninspired illustrations and lack of definitions for many words—can be overcome by a teacher who is willing to find supplemental visual texts and explain vocabulary. ■

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REVIEW

Past, Present, and Future: A Reading-Writing Text, 3rd Ed.

Joan Young Gregg and Joan Russell.
Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company. 1990.

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The aim of *Past, Present, and Future: A Reading-Writing Text* is for students to internalize the processes of reading and writing by practicing related tasks extensively. The third edition, intended for low- to intermediate-level ESL students at college, contains new developmental material.

Organization is consistent within the three major units. Each has three chapters which present readings and exercises relating to past, present, and future time frames. The introductory activities contain prereading, free-writing, and vocabulary in context. Short reading passages are followed by discussion questions, comprehension checks, vocabulary work, grammar reviews, and composition practice. The chapters conclude with additional readings and exercises.

Closer examination reveals the text's careful construction and variety of tasks. The prereading portion, for example, provides students with varied cognitive and motivational activities. There may be discussion questions about ideas and objects or a pertinent dictionary skill activity. The reading passages, written in a clear, sequential style, cover a broad range of subjects from archaeology to American sign language, water-divining to women's roles, mammals to Malcolm X. Students use inferencing and literal skills as they analyze the reading—noting topics, paragraph patterns, time-and-logic sequences, supporting ideas, and so forth. Illustrations provoke interest, the pages are well laid out, and the type is easy to read.

For writing practice, students outline, summarize, and compose from information given in the readings. Vocabulary and concepts (like general vs. specific information or sequencing of ideas) are reinforced thoughout the text. Neatly inserted into each chapter is a review of basic grammatical structures such as the use of *there is/are*, modals, and the parts of speech. Appendices provide basic terminology for English language study, beautiful maps, and more.

Some attention is given to speaking and listening skills and the affective domain. Provocative questions give ample opportunity for natural discourse as students interpret the reading passages and state their personal experiences or values. Suggestions are given for role-playing, brainstorming, and peer editing.

While noting the careful structure of the text, I'd caution potential users about the overly detailed and numerous exercises. In fact, a subtitle of the book might read "A Grammar and Writing Exercise Book With Some Reading." Students may get bogged down or discouraged and teachers may grow weary of the voluminous correcting responsibilities that result from each chapter's work. Additionally, some of the readings are lackluster and seem textbook-like rather than authentic. For this reason, the text should be used selectively. The units could be edited according to the abilities of the class and the energy of the teacher, who should adjust assignments to fit the time allotted to complete the materials.

With this caveat, I suggest that the text will assist the college student in reading and writing. It should provide teachers with many carefully sequenced activities with which they can plan a meaningful and productive program for second language students. ■

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REVIEW

The English Connection: A Content-Based Grammar and Discussion Text, 2nd Ed.

Gail Fingado, Leslie J. Freeman, Mary Reinbold Jerome, and Catherine Vaden Summers. New York: Newbury House. 1991.

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The English Connection is one of the best grammar books I've seen. Billed as "A Content-Based Grammar and Discussion Text," it is geared to university ESL students, though it is certainly suitable for adult school and high school students as well. The text covers the standard intermediate structural syllabus, but with a difference: Each component is highly contextualized, with enough discourse for students to take advantage of language clues. Moreover, each chapter deals with timely and evocative topics for young adults, such as space, UFOs, the environment, Flo Jo, the Civil War, and computer dating. Each lesson begins with a taped dialogue and features natural language containing useful idioms and expressions. Grammar rules are presented straightforwardly, in context, and are followed by contextualized exercises which demand progressive degrees of communicative competence. Each chapter concludes with provocative discussion questions (which could also be used as topics for writing at the university level).

To illustrate, the chapter on gerunds and infinitives is organized around the topic of rock music. It opens with a picture of Roger Daltry and Peter Townsend and a dialogue between Arnold Calhoun (one of the text's running characters) and his father. Arnold has dropped out of school to play guitar in a rock band, and his father is trying to persuade him to return to school. In their conversation they use idioms such as *sick of something*, *drop out*, and *that's that!*, each of which is explained in terms students can understand. The subsequent exercises are varied with paragraphs about Madonna, Michael Jackson, and yes, even Elvis. The possible patterns which gerunds and infinitives can assume are explained and practiced via slot exercises containing rich, substantive language. This gives students a chance to experience grammatical patterns in sustained discourse, strengthening their grammar as well as their reading/listening skills. In the final, communicative task, small groups of students discuss the generation gap, acceptable professions for young people, parental expectations, and tastes in popular music.

An obvious side benefit of *The English Connection* is that it presents an insightful picture of American concerns, interests, and perspectives. From the interactions between Arnold and his father, for example, we find out a great deal about American parent-child relationships. The choices Arnold has made, how he addresses his father, and how his father responds to him are a powerful, albeit an indirect lesson on American culture.

The English Connection is certainly an exciting and well-crafted book, with all the relevance, savvy, and substance one would expect in materials developed by experienced classroom teachers. However, one could take issue with the term in the subtitle *content-based*, since the basic tenant of this approach is that students learn a second language via exposure to subject matter rather than through overt language instruction. In a sense, then, designating the text a "content-based grammar" is an oxymoron, much like the oft-cited *bittersweet*. This should not, however, be construed as a serious criticism. If one is going to teach grammar, there probably isn't a more contextualized, exciting, and timely text around. ■

The CATESOL Journal

REVIEW

Basically Academic: An Introduction to EAP

Pat Currie. New York: Newbury House. 1991.

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As the title indicates, *Basically Academic* prepares students for the transition from high school to the more academically challenging world of college or university. It is geared toward intermediate language learners who need to more finely tune their skills in the following areas: reading; taking notes in lectures; giving presentations; and selecting, synthesizing, and shaping required information into clear, well organized prose. Since the author feels that students "need to become more independent, less reliant on the teacher" (p. xiii), the book makes extensive use of cooperative learning activities. Through these activities, students learn to write more efficiently and effectively.

The book is composed of eight chapters, each built around a particular theme such as endangered species or child labor. Each chapter contains several readings with diverse activities that take the students into, through, and beyond the literature. Prereading exercises introduce the readings; these are followed by post reading activities which check comprehension and engage students in challenging tasks involving in-depth, critical investigation of the information contained in the readings.

Because students are generally asked to display their knowledge of a topic in writing at the college or university level, *Basically Academic* includes various writing tasks which assist students in forming and organizing their thoughts. These include writing thesis statements, essays, and letters of concern and are designed with the drafting process in mind. All stages of the writing process are included, offering students a challenge in organizing information and articulating their ideas with clarity and accuracy.

The book serves its stated purpose. Students are exposed to authentic texts taken from many sources. Although some of these sources (e.g., *International Wildlife, Canada and the World*) would not necessarily be assigned at the university, they are written at a level of language similar to that assigned in university courses. These more popular texts provide an important middle ground of authentic prose which intermediate-level EAP students can access, thereby gaining confidence.

Another plus is the variety of exercise formats. The prereading exercises activate students' schemata through written and oral questions. The postreading activities stress skills necessary for text comprehension through several types of assignments: group work, jigsaw activities, discussion questions, and short answer responses. The task-based writing exercises send students to the library and out into the community to conduct interviews. They ask students to make predictions and use their newly acquired information to develop essays.

Though the book requires only an intermediate-level of proficiency, some of the activities and readings appear to be too difficult for students of this level. The use of authentic texts is a superb idea, but one must remember that the vocabulary of intermediate learners remains somewhat limited. Additionally, the author concedes that there is little focus on grammar in the book; an integrated treatment of this area of language and the area of vocabulary development would have enhanced the book's appeal.

In summary, *Basically Academic* is a very good tool for teaching the skills required in the academic environment of higher education. This book would make a significant contribution to any EAP class. ■

The CATESOL Journal

REVIEW

Bridge to College Success: Intensive Academic Preparation for Advanced Students

Heather Robertson.
New York: Newbury House. 1991.

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Bridge to College Success is for students attending or planning to attend college. To benefit from this book, students must be advanced ESL learners with scores of at least 475 on the TOEFL. Native English speakers with at least a ninth-grade reading level can also benefit from the text. The purpose of this textbook is to present students with authentic assignments to help them acquire the skills necessary to succeed at the university level. Another goal, specifically directed at ESL students, is to help them adjust to and understand the U.S. educational system.

The book is divided into 10 chapters. It is attractive and well-illustrated. Each chapter focuses on a general educational theme (e.g., social sciences, business) and begins with a detailed outline of specific objectives.

In each chapter, students are asked to: discover key terms, take notes while listening to an authentic theme lecture, read an excerpt from a college textbook and answer questions, and guess meaning from context. While reading, they are encouraged to increase their speed and apply various reading strategies. Students are also guided in writing various types of assignments (research reports, business letters, etc.). They are exposed to individual and group work as well as to class discussions in which the question discussed may have no right answer. Because students are doing real-life college tasks, they are indeed getting ready to function at the university.

The main skills of notetaking, listening, reading, writing, and speaking are continuously reinforced, and different subskills needed to accomplish specific tasks (such as interpreting laboratory reports containing graphs and diagrams) are taught. When a new skill is required to accomplish a task, the skill is pretaught.

At the end of the book, there are three valuable appendices. The first gives the meaning of roots to guide students in guessing unknown words. The second provides detailed instructions for writing research papers. The last is an inventory of skills students might need to review or reinforce. The instructor's manual provides lesson tips, sample midterms and finals, and answer keys. Lecture transcripts are available.

Bridge to College Success is an outstanding content-based textbook. As a former ESL student who has been through five years of university in the United States, I feel its approach is one that maximally prepares ESL as well as native English-speaking students. Since students learn to master listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills through work centered in motivating educational themes, they are effectively preparing for college success. ■

The CATESOL Journal

REVIEW

Lexis: Academic Vocabulary Study

Arline Burgmeier, Gerry Eldred, and Cheryl Boyd Zimmerman.
New York: Prentice Hall, Inc. 1991.

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Increasingly, universities are establishing content- and theme-based ESL curricula. In response to this trend, Burgmeier, Eldred, and Zimmerman have designed *Lexis: Academic Vocabulary Study*. Suggested as a primary, multiskills text, *Lexis* is intended for high-intermediate ESL students who need to acquire academic vocabulary. The book contains high-interest readings and activities which help learners recognize words in related contexts, practice word formation, use words in natural communicative situations, and use a dictionary as a vocabulary-expanding tool. The authors claim that the text is uniquely designed to "incorporate [words into the learners'] passive vocabularies and ultimately into their active vocabularies" (p.viii). All vocabulary building occurs within the context of thematic readings. This contextualized learning creates a cognitive hold on the learner's memory.

The text is organized into eight chapters of four parts each. These are intended to be completed in the prescribed order. Part 1, "Establishing the Context," contains 4 prereading questions and 10 true-false comprehension questions. The exercises titled, "Understanding Words," "Putting Words in Sentences," and "Using Words in Context," are highly grammar-based and dictionary-oriented; they deal with collocations and involve in-text writing. On the average, these sections contain 35 to 40 exercises, which involve, for example, looking words up in the dictionary, writing sentences, completing paragraphs, and describing pictures or graphic information.

Overall, the authors have produced a text which is much needed in the ESL market—one which provides intensive practice with high-frequency vocabulary items students need for academic success. However, there is a definite mismatch between the authors' stated intentions and their execution. First, the authors claim their focus to be the original and productive use of vocabulary in natural situations. Yet, in "Using Words in Context," students are asked to perform such tasks as dictation, chronological ordering, and sentence unscrambling, none of which involve productive use of language. No oral practice is provided, nor are there adequate built-in opportunities for pair or group work. How is the goal of transferring vocabulary from passive to active or original use achieved? How much reworking of the material will be needed for the instuctor—as facilitator of an atmosphere of experimentation, encouragement, and discovery—to create natural situations for production?

In sum, the authors' intent in writing *Lexis* is laudable. The book is generally well thought-out and thorough, with appropriately selected readings. Yet given the above restrictions, I would not recommend it as a primary text for a communication-based vocabulary course. Instead, I'd choose it as a supplemental text or as a guide for individualized, home-based study. ■

The CATESOL Journal

REVIEW

Reading at the University

Linda Harbaugh Hillman. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle. 1990.

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Reading at the University, a volume in the Heinle and Heinle "English for Academic Purposes" series, focuses on reading comprehension for advanced ESL/EFL students who are beginning or plan to begin their studies at an American university. With high-interest, authentic selections from college-level texts, it introduces students to the full range of disciplines—and their concomitant discourse styles—that college freshmen are likely to encounter. The fields of anthropology, biology, business, chemistry, computer science, economics, English composition and rhetoric, ethics, history, philosophy, and sociology are all represented.

Hillman says that since "training in reading comprehension is the *sine qua non* of this book" (p. xvii), she aims to train students to understand, not to test whether they have understood, "so all work is done with the book open" (p. xviii). The "student-centered and process-oriented" (p. v) activities are designed to help integrate reading, writing, speaking, and listening skills.

The chapter on cultural anthropology, which presents several short ethnographic studies, is particularly engaging. At the beginning of the chapter, a "Getting Started" section instructs students in study skills, telling them to survey the chapter and then skim the parts of the readings that catch their attention. Next is a schema-activating "Preparation" section with introductory questions designed to reveal the students' prior knowledge and inspire them to learn more. Hillman follows each reading with factual, analytic, and vocabulary-building questions and exercises. The chapter exam after the series of readings includes essay questions which require students to synthesize information and give their own opinions. Finally, in a "Be the Professor" section with a metacognitive angle, students take the point of view of the instructor and write questions for their classmates to answer.

Reading at the University has a thorough and detailed table of contents and a useful index, plus appendices, including a cognitive skills test (based on Ankney and Joyce's Piagetian concrete-operational skills test) which enables students to rate their own problem-solving ability (p. 347). Throughout the book, all pages are perforated so that students can tear out exercises to hand in. There is also a separate instructor's manual with ideas for teachers and answers to exercises.

Because it provides a wide range of genuinely interesting readings and many excellent student activities, this text is likely to be accepted widely in college ESL/EFL programs. ■

The CATESOL Journal

REVIEW

Bridging the Gap: College Reading, 3rd Ed.

Brenda D. Smith.
Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman, and Company. 1989.

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This book is designed to help students make the transition—bridge the gap—from general reading to the specialized reading of freshman college classes. It would be a suitable reading text for high school seniors intent on college or for entering college freshmen in an introductory reading course. I would recommend that nonnative English speakers be at an advanced level of English proficiency.

The book is organized into 11 chapters. Each one introduces a new skill, provides short exercises to practice the skill, and then applies the skill to three longer sections which are arranged according to different levels of readability. A section on vocabulary building is included in each chapter after each of the longer reading selections. This section encourages students to guess the meanings of words through context.

In the initial chapters, concentration and study strategies are discussed. The third chapter, "Vocabulary," offers instruction and practice in using context clues and word structure to determine the meaning of unfamiliar words. The recognition of main ideas in a passage and the selection of significant supporting details are covered in chapter 4. In the next chapter, five different methods of organizing textbook information for later study are explained (e.g., summarizing, notetaking, outlining). The remaining chapters teach rate flexibility (skimming and scanning), test-taking strategies, inference (connotation, implied meaning), bias (propaganda, opinion), and graphic illustration. The book concludes with an opportunity to apply all these skills to an actual chapter from a college textbook. This final chapter is an exceptionally good test of the student's ability to transfer the skills learned to the real world of university discourse.

An instructor's manual, which contains the answers to all of the exercises as well as suggestions for additional practice accompanies the book. Other welcome features are scoring guides for the written exercises and chapter-specific test packets. These include short quizzes on each chapter's contents and reading selections with self-test questions for additional practice. Answer keys are also included.

This third edition contains several new features including new readings, new written response statements for the readings, and questions which preview and activate students' previous knowledge for longer selections. Attractive features retained from the previous edition include essay exams for writing practice following each selection, readings on sociology, psychology, business, marketing, and other topics from courses students are likely to take, and perforated pages so that students can tear out and hand in assignments.

I recommend this text to anyone teaching a transition course in reading for nonnative or native speakers of English. It provides students with a broad range of skills that they will need at college and with in-depth opportunities to practice individual skills before actually applying them. *Bridging the Gap* lives up to its name. It is excellent preparation for what lies ahead in university classes. ■

The CATESOL Journal

REVIEW

Insights Into Academic Writing: Strategies for Advanced Students

Margot C. Kadesch, Ellen D. Kolba, and Sheila C. Crowell.
White Plains, NY: Longman. 1991.

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Raimes (1987) proposes that the purpose of writing is to learn about both language and content. Classes designed for that purpose must begin by delineating content. The most prominent aspect of *Insights Into Academic Writing* is its content-driven design. The 10 units give students realistic assignments based on authentic, academic prose. All but the last unit contain at least two content area readings upon which activities and writing assignments are based. Units 1 through 7 are built upon the following areas: social science, anthropology, philosophy, poetry, economics, business, and history/law/political science. Text types for writing assignments include summary/reaction, personal narrative, comparison/contrast, essay test, and critical, opinion, and argumentative essays. The course culminates in Units 8 through 10 with a term paper on the impact of technology on the workplace.

Recognizing that we must prepare students for the realities of academic writing requirements outside of the process approach classroom (Horowitz, 1986), the authors combine process approach techniques with product-based rhetorical goals. Their approach strikes a healthy balance between process and product: The product is always in view, yet the emphasis is on the process and strategies for producing the product.

Different prewriting and revision activities are incorporated into every unit depending on the writing task. For example, in the philosophy unit where students produce a summary/reaction essay, a two-column chart and a list of questions about what makes a person "good" or "moral" lead students to compare their opinions to those of four philosophers before they write. Similarly, before producing a critical essay on literature, students engage in prewriting activities which involve identifying poetic images. In the revision phase, they strengthen their prose by adding direct quotations for support. Other pluses include the teaching of strategies for timed essay examinations—an area Horowitz claims is neglected by the process approach. Throughout the text, organizational planning is taught via simple diagrams illustrating possible paragraph ordering.

The text is not without potential drawbacks. Teachers should be aware that these process approach techniques may not fit every student's individual writing process. Also, because every assignment has different prewriting and revision activities, students may feel a lack of continuity. The specificity of the prewriting activities may also limit the transferability of skills to students' later tasks. To overcome these drawbacks, teachers may wish to remind their students of techniques already learned and demonstrate how they could adapt these strategies for other assignments.

While the book is recommended for use with both native and nonnative English-speakers, the reading passages may prove difficult for second language students. Teachers may therefore need to design additional vocabulary and grammar lessons. Finally, although editing is suggested at the end of each unit, no explicit instruction is provided.

Insights Into Academic Writing emphasizes the synthesis and analysis of cross-curricular material which supports "writing as a mode of learning" (Knoblauch & Brannon, 1983). If supplemented with lessons in vocabulary and grammar, it can help students grow in their language ability and gain important cross-curricular experience. ■

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The CATESOL Journal

REVIEW

Writing Up Research: Experimental Research Report Writing for Students of English

Robert Weissberg and Suzanne Buker.
New York: Prentice Hall Regents. 1990.

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Writing Up Research is an excellent instructional guide, which helps ESL students gain authority over their own research writing. Since instructional materials in this text are geared toward fine-tuning both organizational and linguistic skills in writing research reports, this resource will most benefit students who are already both proficient researchers and writers of English. The authors' goal is ". . . to provide a straightforward, readable guide to the conventions followed by English-speaking researchers in writing up their work" (p. 203). Primarily a genre-based instructional guide drawing on the work of Swales (1990), the book provides logical explanations of and appropriate exercises in the most frequent, relevant, linguistic and rhetorical items used in writing scientific research. Instruction is designed to guide students through writing research and encourage them to examine their reasons for choosing particular rhetorical forms, grammatical structures, or vocabulary items. Model research reports from the social sciences, natural sciences, physical sciences, and engineering are included, so the book is useful for students from a variety of disciplines.

Chapter 1 provides an overview and an outline of the sections of the typical experimental research report: abstract, introduction, method, results, and discussion. The remaining chapters deal with each section in depth and provide students with the necessary linguistic support to master this genre. Each chapter strikes an appropriate balance between grammar instruction and opportunities to apply germane lexical, rhetorical, and writing process information. "Information Conventions" provides examples of different organizational patterns for each section of a research paper. "Language Conventions" presents high-frequency linguistic elements needed to effectively articulate research in writing—including noun phrases and signal words. "Guided Writing" and "Writing Up Your Own Research" (included within "Integration") provide written activities which allow students to practice and apply the conventions learned to their own research report. Other parts of the book acquaint students with aspects of research such as using the library and proper citation of bibliographical sources.

Although the activities and explanations provide appropriate instruction in elements essential to each part of a paper, the introduction is given inordinate attention (70 pages), particularly compared with treatment of the the discussion (24 pages). Hopkins and Dudley-Evans' (1988) research demonstrates that discussions are the most difficult sections to write because they require writers to (a) construct a complex argument, (b) compare and validate the reported research findings with those of previous research, and (c) present the findings within the larger context of the field while acknowledging the study's limitations. Nevertheless, this imbalance in treatment does not detract from the usefulness of this thoughtfully constructed text. ■

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The CATESOL Journal

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